

THE
MAKING OF CITIZENS

A STUDY IN
COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

BY

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P R E F A C E.

DURING the last twenty years an enormous amount of material on the educational systems of Europe and America has been collected and published by various Governments, as well as by private persons. Hitherto, however, there has been no attempt made to collect and present this material in a systematic form to the English reader; although M. Levasseur has done this for the French, and several writers have performed a similar duty for the German, reader.

The preparation of this work has proved a heavy task, and I trust that my effort will be received as an earnest attempt to place before my readers a complete and accurate account of the present position of education in the four principal countries of the world.

There is one point I am anxious to make clear: I have placed as my aim, not the compilation of sets of comparable and scientifically accurate statistics, for I recognise the futility, and, indeed, impossibility of such a task as that. My purpose has been rather to utilise statistics as a means to an end—and that end is the presentation of a reasonably clear and well-defined set of pictures illustrating the systems of education at work in these countries. Statistics are used as guides, not gauges. Nothing more readily lends itself to abuse than statistical information, and therefore, throughout this book, the fact is emphasised that a direct comparison of system

with system, by means of statistics only, is unscientific and misleading.

Finally, I would point out that this book has been written primarily for general readers—for people who, taking an intelligent and keen interest in the many pressing educational and concomitant social problems of modern society in England, are anxious to have a coherent and intelligible account of how these problems are being dealt with by sister peoples. Consequently, I have not deemed it necessary to append a detailed list of the many authorities consulted. The statistics in the text, unless specifically stated otherwise, are taken from official sources or from compilations avowedly based upon Government publications; and although no special value is claimed for them purely as statistics, nor can I hope to have escaped the very human tendency to err in dealing with them, yet it is believed that as used here they are reliable and clear.

I feel under a debt of obligation to many writers; but the book would not have been written had not the Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education, Washington, and the Special Reports of the English Board of Education placed a mine of information at the disposal of the student. The American Commissioner's Reports are for brevity referred to in the text as *C.R.*; whilst the two volumes dealing with American Education, and entitled *Education in the United States*, prepared for the Paris Exhibition, are similarly referred to as *A.E.*

For direct help in the preparation of the book, I am indebted to my wife; while to the Rev. W. Tudor Jones, and Mr. W. A. Beanland, my thanks are due for help in other ways. Finally, for assistance in many directions, I would like to thank Principal Salmon and Mr. A. E. Twentyman.

R. E. II.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER II.

SOME SOCIAL PROBLEMS

CHAPTER III.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GERMANY

CHAPTER V.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF FRANCE 1

CHAPTER VI.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES
OF AMERICA 1

CHAPTER VII.

THE WORKING OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS 1

CHAPTER VIII.

THE HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL 2

CHAPTER IX.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF FRANCE

PAGE
213

CHAPTER X.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GERMANY

235

CHAPTER XI.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED

STATES 265

CHAPTER XII.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND

296

CHAPTER XIII.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS

335

CHAPTER XIV.

THE EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVE CHILDREN

367

CHAPTER XV.

CONCLUSIONS

387

APPENDIX A

(Inset) 397

APPENDIX B

397

INDEX

399

THE MAKING OF CITIZENS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

ALTHOUGH it has often been pointed out that existing divisions of time into centuries, etc., are purely arbitrary, and consequently possess no relationship to the concurrent phenomena of life, it will always remain not only convenient but attractive to the philosopher to see evolution in centuries and phenomena in decades. Many have been the often ingenious and always interesting suggestions put forward to characterise the phenomena of the dead century.

It is doubtful whether more remarkable transformations have ever taken place than those which took place between the years 1800 and 1900. It is certain that since man made his appearance no such variations in environment have confronted him. The life of man, which is commensurate with his circle of experience,¹ has been made infinitely more subtle and extensive. This complexity has compelled a corresponding increase of sensitiveness in the organism. The increased sensitiveness is being attained but slowly and somewhat intermittently; yet it must be attained if full life is to ensue. The organism of the child of the twentieth century will, for its very life's sake, be immeasurably more responsive and complex than that of the eighteenth-century child.

The time required to "train" the latter child to sensitive-

¹ "By education we add to the child's experience the experience of the human race. His own experience is necessarily one-sided and shallow; that of the race is thousands of years deep, and it is rounded to fulness." —W. T. HARRIS.

ness and responsiveness was but a fraction of the time that will be required to train the former. This period of adjustment, of training, increases from the chick to the mammal, from the Bushman to the Aryan. The child of the peasant must be content with what training he can receive up to the age of ten or eleven; the progeny of the peer will receive training up to manhood.

"In great states," says Ruskin, "children are always trying to remain children, and the parents wanting to make men and women of them. In vile states the children are always wanting to be men and women, and the parents to keep them children."

Looking back over this last century, it is almost impossible for us to realise how people lived and thought a hundred years ago. With no railways or steamboats, telegraph or telephone, few daily papers, the limits of travel often circumscribed by the county, occasionally even by the parish, how small and simple must life have been! With the mechanical inventions of the last century came the possibility of a fuller life, a richer experience; and consequently the need for a fuller training was immediately felt. It may perhaps sound paradoxical to say that the English Education Act of 1870 was brought about by the invention of the steam-engine; nevertheless it is a remarkable fact that the necessity for national training was felt simultaneously in many different countries of the world.

It is true that in certain countries systems of training were in vogue before the appearance of the steam-engine. Still they were, if not moribund, certainly not flourishing; and in no sense were they comprehensive and national, as they are to-day. Stephenson's work made the world larger and smaller. The world of the individual grew larger, and that of the race smaller. The steam-engine filled life with greater possibilities. The environment of the individual became not only wider but fuller; and for health's sake a more sensitive responsiveness was felt to be indispensable.

The nineteenth century will certainly be remarkable for the growth of the National School, and may with some reason be characterised as the Century of Education—the period in which the necessity for a training of all citizens of the State was first recognised and provided for. Wherever we look, whether in Europe or America, we see the movement for national training taking place. Such a necessity had, it is

true, been already recognised by a few great minds: for example—the early American settlers, who feared lest good learning should be buried in the graves of their fathers, and who held a simple faith in the divine efficacy of education with the same earnestness that they cherished their religion; and Luther, who held it the first duty of citizens to educate their children;¹ Knox, too, the father of Scotch education; and Mulcaster, the great English schoolmaster.

But these were only messengers to prepare the way. The movement itself, the realising of mediæval day-dreams, was confined to the nineteenth century.

It was a remarkable movement in many ways, simultaneous yet curiously different here and there. Characteristic too of its environment, the movement assumes many aspects according to its social *milieu*. To understand the significance of the picture the setting must never be overlooked. It is not which is the more beautiful picture, but which picture harmonises best with the background, that we must consider. The Matterhorn rising from a plain of meadows and prairies would make an incongruous, grotesque picture, but standing amid its peers, girdled by glaciers and kissed by clouds, what more beautiful? So it is that in watching the movement for national training and comparing its different aspects here and there, our judgment on its comparative value must depend upon no *a priori* set of conditions, but upon its suitability to the *milieu* peculiar to it. The question is not which is the best system, but which is the most suitable system.

The purpose of this book is to observe the result of the movement as it has taken place in the four principal countries of the world, England, France, Germany, and the United States. It is our aim here to paint, with as light a brush as possible, four pictures showing how these four countries, like good mothers, endeavour to prepare their future citizens for life; and to do this we shall avail ourselves of all means at our disposal for making

¹ "Each city," he said, "is subjected to great expense every year for the construction of roads, for fortifying its ramparts, and for buying arms and equipping soldiers. Why should it not spend an equal sum for the support of one or two schoolmasters? The prosperity of a city does not depend solely on its natural riches, on the solidity of its walls, on the elegance of its mansions, and on the abundance of arms in its arsenals, but the safety and strength of a city reside above all in a good education, which furnishes it with instructed, reasonable, honourable, and well-trained citizens." (*Compayré, History of Pedagogy*, p. 115, Payne.)

the pictures vivid and true. There is, however, a limit to our efforts. When instituting a comparison of this kind between systems of national training, one is apt to forget that the really vital elements in such a comparison cannot be directly compared. We can place in juxtaposition tables and statistics showing the comparative costs of schoolhouses, payments of teachers and other officers, the relative amounts paid for educational purposes by each citizen, amount spent on each child's training in the school, the regularity with which the children attend, the relative efficiency of the school laws, the relative facilities for higher training, and many other items; but the really vital question is not touched by such figures. The question is, "Which of all these various systems of national training makes the best citizens?" and when the question is put thus one sees that its answer depends entirely upon what the phrase "best citizen" may connote. The phrase in France or Germany does certainly not connote the same attributes as in England or America, so that it is immediately evident how difficult, if not impossible, it is to answer such a question as "Which is the better educational system—that of Germany or of England?"

Time may perhaps make such a question sensible, but as long as national characteristics persist, so long will national ideals vary.

The fact is, the school is a political institution maintained by the State for the cultivation and propagation of national ideals. Anarchists must be born, they can never be made under existing conditions. Every school is a machine deliberately contrived for the manufacture of citizens. The die of the machine varies. In democratic states future rulers must be trained, in military states future soldiers.¹ The French

¹ "It is an interesting thing to see how the higher education of different countries reflects in its organisation and character the political institutions of the nations concerned. In France and in Germany, where the citizen is part of a public machine, university life is occupied with an almost purely technical training, which fits each man for his place in that machine. In England and America, on the other hand, where the citizen is regarded primarily as part of a governing body, we have had a system of college education less closely adapted to technical needs, but more efficient in the creation of public sentiment. England and America have a system of liberal education in a sense which France and Germany have not—an education whose liberality consists not in the superior quantity of knowledge, but in the relation of that knowledge to civil liberty." (*The Education of the American Citizen*, by President Hadley.)

Republic deliberately inaugurated its system of schools so that every child should become a citizen and a soldier; the statesmen of England cried for schools so that the State might be saved. States, as a rule, do not educate out of pure love and charity, but from selfish motives, mainly fear and rivalry, and—shall it be said?—parsimony! Schools are much cheaper than prisons—thus the annual cost of maintenance of a child in our schools is £2 11s.; in the gaol, £28 7s.; in the convict prison, £43 16s. This fact has appealed with strange force to many admirable folk who would indignantly deny that their educational instincts were prompted by parsimonious motives.

The political nature of the school is emphasised by its correspondence to the many aspects of the national life. Just as the nation is too often made up of different strata, so are the schools. Moreover, the greater the number of strata the greater is the variety of schools. In monarchical countries, in military states, these “castes” are numerous and sharply defined—so are the schools. In democratic states the reverse holds. Further, in these military states the orderly habits of the people are reflected in the national system of schools. There is none of that overlapping, spasmodic effort characteristic of the democratic state. The people have been trained in habits of disciplined obedience, as in Germany, or the peculiar genius of the nation for order and symmetry thus manifests itself, as in France. Whichever it be, the result is a beautiful harmony and smooth working, that, united, excite the admiration of the uncritical observer, who is apt in his enthusiasm to forget the price exacted for so perfect a machine.

In Germany the caste feeling in society is intense, and is still of immense political force, sufficient to compel the existence of special schools for special classes. In America, on the other hand, as a political force it has practically disappeared.

As for France and England, it is difficult to generalise. In some respects society in England is as sharply defined as in Germany; in many respects both France and England fall far away from the democratic ideal of one school for all. The gradations are perfectly clear and unmistakable, and closely correspond with the divisions of social life. In America we have the Common School, intended for and utilised by

practically all classes of society. It is true that Matthew Arnold and other observers have noticed that this statement requires considerable modification. The upper classes of American society send their children to private schools, ostensibly for religious reasons, really for social reasons, and this tendency is increasing. Notwithstanding this, it may be taken as a general statement of fact, that practically all future American citizens are trained in the one school—the common school. In France nearly three-fourths of the children of the State attend the public primary school—the only school financed and controlled by the State; nevertheless these children belong mainly to the lower strata of society. The upper classes send their children to the Lycées, the Church secondary schools, or the Conventual schools, as the case may be. The social democratic ideal does not exist in France.

In England the elementary schools were originally intended for the poor. To-day they are open to all classes, but as a matter of fact are attended almost entirely by children of the labouring and lower middle classes. Other classes of society do not use them. They prefer to send their children to "academies for the sons of gentlemen," or "schools for the daughters of gentlemen"!

In Germany we have the complete antithesis of America: here every class of society has its own particular type of school, and it is as difficult for a lad to pass from one school to another as in German social life it is to rise from one class of society to another.¹ There is the Volksschule for the labouring and artisan class, the Realschule for the commercial

¹ This statement may perhaps seem too general. Mr. Sadler, Mr. W. H. Dawson, and others have pointed out that the passage from one school and from one class of society to another is by no means so uncommon as may be supposed. Indeed, the most distinguished of German writers on pedagogy to-day was once a boy on the farm. Mr. Sadler writes: "The result of all this is that a large number of German children (possibly, if there were statistics to be compared, a larger proportion of children than in England) do actually receive their early education, or a part of it, in the public elementary schools, and then proceed to the secondary" (Sadler, *Special Report's*, vol. iii. p. 233); and Mr. Dawson is still more emphatic: "From the secondary school to the university is a step far more natural and far more frequently taken than in England. Perhaps in no country in the world is the door of educational advancement so wide open as in Germany, where a boy of genuine intelligence and capacity, no matter how humble his origin or how straitened his resources, may make

and business classes, and the Gymnasium for the learned classes. Intermediate grades have arisen in German society, and so special schools for such intermediate classes have arisen, such as the Real- and Pro-Gymnasium.

One phase of the democratic ideal in education is the "educational ladder." As Mr. Kidd has pointed out, in the democratic state it is *equality of opportunity* that is the one desideratum. "A large proportion of the population in the prevailing state of society take part in the rivalry of life only under conditions which absolutely preclude them, whatever their natural merit or ability, from any real chance therein. They come into the world to find the best positions not only already filled, but practically occupied in perpetuity; for under the great body of rights which wealth has inherited from feudalism, we to all intents and purposes allow the wealthy classes to retain the control of these positions for generation after generation to the permanent exclusion of the rest of the people. Even from that large and growing class of positions for which high acquirements or superior education is the only qualification, and of which we consequently (with strange inaccuracy) speak as if they were open to all comers, it may be perceived that the larger proportion of the people are excluded—almost as rigorously and as absolutely as in any past condition of society—by the simple fact that the ability to acquire such education or qualification is at present the exclusive privilege of wealth." (Kidd, *Social Evolution*, p. 234.)

To speak of equality as between the peasant's son and the peer's son is absurd. It is the primal duty of the State to provide every child with equal opportunity for developing the powers he has been endowed with. Nay more, the State

the triumphant progress from the elementary school to the university without fear of obstacle or—given staying power—of failure" (*German Life in Town and Country*, p. 118).

But cf. Bolton (*The Secondary School System of Germany*, p. 1): "They [the secondary schools] articulate poorly with the people's schools, and unless the transition from the people's schools to the Gymnasia is made early, it is impossible for boys trained in the former to enter the latter;" and Russell (*German Higher Schools*, p. 135) says: "The elementary and secondary schools are quite independent of each other, . . . not one boy in ten thousand finds his way from the highest class of the elementary school into the Gymnasium." (See also p. 420, where the author is still more emphatic.)

must do this for its own sake, even more than for any other reason. The national capital is estimated in foot-pounds of *productive capacity*, not in the unused hoardings of Mother Nature. Coal-mines and gold-fields have limits; intellectual capacity has not found any yet. The creed of the democratic State is, "I educate to live." Every citizen must give of his best for the good of the State, and on its part the State must train its children in power of giving. Wherever the bright nuggets of intellect are scattered, the State must for its very existence find them out, polish them, and make them beautiful to look on.¹ In America alone is this creed accepted to-day; yet to the student the signs of the times are clear. Wherever one looks, whether in Germany or in England, the growth of the democratic ideal is obvious and gratifying. In England, despite the cleavages of modern society, the elementary schools are being utilised more and more by all classes. The intelligent parent is beginning to recognise the absurdity of bolstering up a wretched system of private schools, and ignoring the admirable system of primary State schools at his door.

Even in Germany many of the leaders of the pedagogic world are crying out for the *Einheitsschule*—one school for all,—and in some bright spots the system is actually at work.² As the barriers of social life in modern Germany are broken

¹ "Nevertheless it is open, I repeat, to serious question, which I leave to the reader's pondering, whether among national manufactures, that of souls of a good quality may not at last turn out a quite leadingly lucrative one?"

"Nay, in some far-away and yet undreamt-of hour, I can even imagine that England may cast all thoughts of possessive wealth back to the barbaric nations among whom they first arose, and that, while the sands of the Indus and adamant of Golconda may yet stiffen the housings of the charger, and flash from the turban of the slave, she, as a Christian mother, may at last attain to the virtues and the treasures of a heathen one, and be able to lead forth her sons, saying—'These are my Jewels.'”—*Unto this Last*, secs. 40-41.

² But this is very unusual. "The Prussian common school is very far from being, as it is usually idealised, the common elementary school for all. Königsberg has 11,391 out of 22,211 children in obligatory attendance in common schools; Dantzig has 12,289 of its 17,792; Berlin, 175,620 of 212,681; Charlottenburg, 7,115 of 10,442; Stettin, 11,109 of 16,493; Posen, 5,725 of 10,869; Breslau, 39,260 of 49,156; Frankfort-on-Main, 12,902 of 23,580. On the other hand, in many cities of the west, the common schools are attended by the majority of children. In Dortmund, 16,286 of 16,793; Crefeld, 17,854 of 19,224; Essen, 12,941 of 14,215." (Tews, *C.R.*, vol. i., 1893-94, p. 209.)

down—as doubtless they will be—so will disappear the barriers between the various types of German schools. The demand for the *Einheitsschule* cannot, however, be separated from certain other cries for political reform heard in Germany, and only as the Fatherland progresses in democracy can this ideal of one school for all be realised. The forces of conservatism are intensely strong both in England and Germany, but the direction in which modern life is moving is clear. Whether it be far or near, the time is coming when the dogma of equality of opportunity will be the recognised creed of the State, and only then will its concomitant factor—one school for all—be the social rule.

In Europe this ideal is most nearly approached in Wales, where the primary schools are utilised by nearly all the population. The pupils proceed to secondary schools, where, for an almost nominal fee, their training is carried on to the doors of the university. Here equality of opportunity has been practically realised. This little land, lost for generations in its mighty mountains, has come into the battle of life equipped with a system of schools which is the admiration of its richer neighbours. Poor and weak she was, yet out of her slender store she gave freely, gladly, for in her people is that faith in education which can see far through the avenues of time. Like the Germans, the Welsh people are idealists and dreamers of dreams. They have materialised one of those dreams.

The political and social ideal of equal opportunity in education is not, however, without serious difficulties. The educational ladder and *Einheitsschule* are terms much oftener used and eulogised by politicians than by pedagogues. Both have from a purely pedagogic standpoint very serious objections, and these objections are common to both, and have been felt wherever the system has been carried out, as in America and Wales. We shall discuss these objections more fully later on; let it suffice here to say that the ladder is for the few bright minds, the school is for all. It would seem impossible to combine perfectly the needs of the few and the many. The few, it is urged, need a training entirely differing from that necessary to satisfy the vocational needs of the many. In America and in Wales, the comparatively late age at which purely secondary studies are taken up by the pupils proceeding from the primary schools, has been found a serious handicap

to proficiency; and the attempt to anticipate and obviate this, by grafting secondary studies on to the primary school course, has not been attended by altogether happy results. Still, while admitting the force of these pedagogic objections, it must be confessed that they are in no sense fatal, and only call for further investigation and experiment. The instinct of peoples is invariably right; this climbing to the stars cannot be avoided. The movement is often unconscious, yet absolutely true. By toil and tribulation are the ideals of life reached. Nations, like individuals, become better unconsciously. In this aspect we see American ideas leading the world. We see the idea of equality of all men before the law giving place to the fuller faith of equality of opportunity. With the coming of that faith disappear the arbitrary distinctions of society and rank, the vestiges of feudalism and militarism, the narrower types of patriotism, and all the relics of bygone barbarism that, like voices from an open tomb, paralyse our movements and fetter our faiths to-day.

We shall find that this democratic faith has a wonderfully invigorating power. It transforms in a generation the scum of Europe into full-blooded, keen American citizens.¹ The atmosphere energises the slowest, and compels the best. Instead of the stolid equanimity with which the European peasant acquiesces in the doings of his superiors, there is developed the critical assertiveness which is prepared to undertake any responsibility or duty, and to demand the recognition of its individuality at all costs. Concurrently is developed that "fatal belief" of the American people that every one is capable of anything, which undoubtedly results in that mass of charlatanism and quackery that so often stinks in the nostrils of true admirers of America.

These are, however, faults not so much of democracy as of national characteristics. We shall see later on that whereas

¹ In North Dakota and Minnesota more than three-fourths of the population is of foreign parentage; in Wisconsin almost three-fourths; in Utah nearly two-thirds; in South Dakota nearly three-fifths; in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Michigan, Montana, Arizona, Nevada, and California just over one-half; in New Jersey, Illinois, and Wyoming just below one-half; in Iowa, Nebraska, Colorado, Idaho, and Washington over two-fifths; in Pennsylvania and Ohio just above one-third; in Oregon not quite one-third; in Kansas and Missouri just over one-fourth, and in Maryland just below one-fourth. (*C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 1631.)

Germany is in some respects the most socialistic country in the world,¹ in America the doctrine of individuality—the special characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon—has received its fullest and most complete development.

France and Germany afford a fine contrast to England and America in this respect. The former are social, the latter individual. In the former the individual depends upon the State; in the latter the State depends upon the individual. Our opinion as to the relative value of the systems of training found in France or England will depend upon our judgment as to the relative value of the socialistic or individualistic types of society. Though much is gained by social co-operation, much too is lost; the State gains, but the individual loses; moreover, what is gained is not all to the good, and what is lost is nearly all to the bad. The educational efficiency of Germany is not an unmixed blessing; the wanderings of the Saxon have not been altogether profitless. The antagonism of the individual against the social unit has laid the foundations of empires.

In comparing the training of citizens, therefore, these national idiosyncrasies will need to be very carefully estimated. For example, any system of training which would tend to crush national aptitudes and characteristics must be condemned; whereas any system, crude though it be, which tends to develop these must receive commendation. To take a concrete example. The discipline of the German school is admirable, so is the general system of training—for *German children*; yet there can be no doubt that such a system would be the very worst for English or American children. It would kill those very characteristics which make the Anglo-Saxon what he is to-day, a wanderer on the face of the earth, practical, resourceful, and self-reliant. Equally impossible does it appear to be to cultivate Saxon qualities in German children.

We shall endeavour in this book to let each system stand upon its merits, for it must not be forgotten that any national system of training to be successful must meet national needs. If the French system seems to us intensely bureaucratic and

¹ "Social development in Germany is, in fact, proceeding unevenly. It is advanced as regards ideas, but in arrear as regards practice." (Kidd, *Social Evolution*, p. 197.)

centralised, it is in that respect thoroughly characteristic of the national genius. Each nation has, it is believed, the system best suited to its idiosyncrasies. It is by development along its own lines that each system will reach the ideal, not by adaptation of other systems. Evolution, not revolution, is the order of development.

CHAPTER II.

SOME SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

IT is in the earliest years of childhood, and at the mother's knees, that those attributes which altogether make up character first show themselves and receive their needed careful tending by a mother's hands. In the home are developed those variations of character which make the national life so full and rich and varied. The school has a precisely opposite effect, its tendency being to modify the variations of character engendered by the home, by the mother. And the better the school system, the more effective is its influence: in Germany, a hundred years of compulsory education has succeeded in producing a remarkable uniformity in the character of the common people. The ideal school is the home, and the best and greatest of teachers is a good mother. Such homes and such mothers are ideals to dream of, not to look for. Life is one long falling away from ideals. If only all homes and parents were ideal, how much trouble and money and heart-searching should we be saved! But the ideal is far from practicable. One can imagine in old days, when life was simple and needs few, that the good home sufficed for the preparation of life. As Longfellow sketches it, the training of Hiawatha was safe in the hands of his simple mentors.¹ But as the complexity of modern life increased, so

¹ "Then the little Hiawatha
Learned of every bird its language,
Learned their names and all their secrets,
How they built their nests in summer,
Where they hid themselves in winter,
Talked with them whene'er he met them,
Called them 'Hiawatha's Chickens.'

Of all the beasts he learned the language,
Learned their names and all their secrets,
How the beavers built their lodges,
Where the squirrels hid their acorns,

was the need of a more extensive and intensive training felt, even in the happy family. How much more was the need felt in the average family! When, further, the growth of the factory system necessitated the absence from home of the parents, the need for some more efficient and comprehensive system of training began to press upon the family with peculiar force. We have travelled far from the period when the needs of the child could be satisfied by the mother. The factory system among the lower classes, the social duties, etc., of the upper classes, have tended to deprive the children of to-day of much of the mother's love and care that old-world children enjoyed.

Nevertheless, the social community could not passively look on at this without doing something to obviate the dangers of such a situation. The State for its own sake must supply the training that the parents will not or cannot give; and so arose the system of providing other homes and foster-parents for the children of the State. Such a national system unfortunately produces a certain amount of antagonism between the individual and the community, which antagonism is very naturally the keener the better the parent. Many parents, and those often the best, feel an unreasonable antagonism to the work of the school.¹ It must, however, be at once admitted that the rights of the community as a whole cannot in this matter of training be lightly set aside; the State, for its own welfare as a social organism, must see to it that its future citizens are properly trained. The pity of it has been, and is, that other bodies besides the individual parent and the State consider that they too have a right to a voice in the training of the child, and the history of education has hitherto resolved itself mainly into one long struggle for the body (and the soul) of the child between Church and State. Church and State have struggled for the school as a proselytising ground.

How the reindeer ran so swiftly,
Why the rabbit was so timid,
Talked with them whene'er he met them,
Called them 'Hiawatha's Brothers.'

¹ Indeed, so distinguished an educator as Mr. Baldwin has committed himself to the following statement:—"It is perfectly certain that two in every three children are irretrievably damaged or hindered in their mental and moral development in the school; but," he adds, "I am not sure that they would fare any better if they stayed at home." (*Mental Development in the Child and the Race*, p. 38.)

"At present education is called for also as an ally of the State and the Church, and it is public school education which is meant. The State intends to lead school education as its ally into the field against destructive currents that are threatening to undermine its power; the Church tries to reconquer by means of instruction in religion what it has lost among the people. All such efforts are in vain, for though the school may be expected to instil into the life of the young generation new thoughts that may serve as guiding lines when this generation has become adult, its influence will prove powerless if it is pressed into the service of existing institutions that oppose popular currents.

"It is always objectionable to call upon the school to aid in a fight, for the school is a domain of peace. Here the artist, and not the warrior, is to work. On its threshold the waves of contention and strife must break, for immature minds grow best in the atmosphere of peace, until they are strong enough to participate in the labours of the day as ethical and religious persons filled with the love of national culture." (Dr. Rein, *Deutsche Revue*, September 1895; *C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 323.)

This instinctive antagonism of which we have spoken between the school and the public is increased in Germany and France by the professional detachment of the teacher. The English parent, too, often instinctively feels that the influence of the school is decidedly opposed to that of the family; indeed, in the case of the large public and boarding schools, the influence of the parents and home on the pupil is practically nil, and the whole attitude of the school is strongly antagonistic to the home and the world outside. Moreover, it would seem to be the settled policy of the teacher to encourage this cloistral attitude of the public school towards the world outside. As Quick long ago wrote, "One disastrous tendency has always shown itself in the schoolroom—the tendency to sever all connection between studies in the schoolroom and life outside." The fact is, our schools are to-day the direct descendants, in spirit and in truth, of the old monastic schools, and in many respects their attitude towards life has been unaltered by the intervening centuries. They deliberately excluded life and introduced the atmosphere of the cloister. Asceticism was their ideal. A supreme contempt for all externalities was their one constant attitude.

Much of this spirit remains to the present day in England,

Germany, and France. The Lycées of France are only equalled by the girls' conventional schools of that country in their supreme indifference to the claims of the outer world. How such anachronisms persist would appear to us marvellous did we not daily see ourselves the victims of absurd customs and grotesque rituals. This ignoring of the claims of environment, this attempt to give the child another environment than the natural one, is characteristic of boarding institutions all over the world. The *internat* has in that way a most pernicious effect on the training of the child. Nowhere is this system so thorough and so comprehensive as in France. In England only a small proportion of our boys, and a negligible number of our girls, are being reared on this system, so that the evil is small, and, moreover, is rendered comparatively harmless by the healthy atmosphere of the house and the school.

The evil effects of this conventional training were long ago pointed out. "I conclude," wrote Fénelon, "that it is better for your daughter to be with you than in the best convent that you could select. . . . If a convent is not well governed, she will see vanity honoured, which is the most subtle of all the poisons that can affect a young girl. She will there hear the world spoken of as a sort of enchanted palace, and nothing makes a more pernicious impression than that deceptive picture of the world, which is seen at a distance with admiration, and which exaggerates all its pleasures without showing its disappointments and its sorrows. . . . So I would fear a worldly convent even more than the world itself. If, on the contrary, a convent conforms to the fervour and regularity of its constitution, a girl of rank will grow up there in a profound ignorance of the world. . . . She leaves the convent like one who had been confined in the shadows of a deep cavern, and who suddenly returns to the full light of day. Nothing is more dazzling than this sudden transition, than this glare to which one has never been accustomed." (Compayré, *History*, p. 168.) However, Fénelon's advice is still needed; the modern convent-schools of France are thus depicted: "I was fourteen when I was sent to school in France, to acquire the tongue of courts and diplomacy. On the first morning I awoke in the long, white-curtained dormitory; I proceeded to dress and wash myself as I had been taught to wash and dress in our insular convents. I had deposited my dressing-gown on my bed and was splashing my

neck with water, when, to my astonishment, a nun approached me, noiselessly lifted my dressing-gown from the bed, and holding her shocked glance averted, murmured, ‘La pudeur, mon enfant, la pudeur,’ as she covered my dripping neck in the folds of my dressing-gown. . . . However, this is all changed, I am happy to say. French nuns have had to move with the times, and accept the modern institution of baths. I hope they have also grown to accept the institution of men. When I was at school we were strictly forbidden to lift our eyes to a man’s face. When the old doctor of eighty passed through the courtyard, if one of us happened to be about there was an instant cry of alarm, ‘Baissez les yeux, mesdemoiselles. Il y a du monde.’ *Du monde* always meant the wolf in trousers and coat, and we were invited ever to tremble, blush, and lower our eyes in the dreadful creature’s presence.” (Miss Lynch, *French Life in Town and Country*, p. 132.)

Fortunately for us English people, our devotion to athletics and the development of the “house” system have saved our public schools from becoming penitentiaries of the French type.¹ Still even we need more life in our schools; the old-world atmosphere that still envelops them and estranges them from home and life must be got rid of. We need more sunlight around the heads of our boys and girls. School life should lead up to the life of the world outside, not by adopting a utilitarian curriculum for the school, nor even one tinted by doses of cottage gardening and manual training. The experience of the French people in endeavouring by these means to modernise the school has not been altogether fortunate. The change needed is a deeper one than that; it is more than a change of curriculum that is needed; it is a

¹ “The strength of the English character has not been developed, as is claimed by some, by the whipping done in English schools and homes. It comes partly by race heredity, from the sturdiness of the Saxon and Norman founders of the race, partly from the general practice of working hard from youth up, and largely from the fact that the English playgrounds are so universally used, and are the scenes of the severest struggles for supremacy in skill and power that are witnessed in any part of the world. The winning half-inch or half-length, the valorous struggle for leadership on track or river—these are the things that have preserved and developed English force and bravery, in spite of the fact that England in her schools and homes has done fully her share of whipping. A boy or girl who spends as much time in free strong play as the English boy, works out the effects of a great many evils from his or her life.”—J. L. Hughes, in *Dickens as an Educator*, p. 82.

change of atmosphere. Education is the unfolding of the disposition of the pupil; it is the creation of attitudes so to speak. Thus a scientific training is valuable, not because of the knowledge accumulated, but because of the attitude engendered.¹ It is culture, not knowledge simply, that is the ultimate aim of education; that is to say, education is a process of assimilation, not accumulation. No one realised the tyranny of knowledge in education better, or preached it more eloquently, than Edward Thring. He begged teachers to "banish the idolatry of knowledge, to realise that calling out thought and strengthening mind are an entirely different and higher process from the putting in of knowledge and the heaping up of facts"; and he urged them to "choose deliberately a large amount of ignorance, and fling omniscience into the common sewer if ever they mean to be skilled workmen, masters of mind, lords of thought, and to teach others to be skilled workmen" (*Rawnsley, Life of Thring*, p. 34). It is the *attitude* of the school towards life that needs to be revolutionised, not the curriculum alone. That is what we mean by saying that it is a change of atmosphere that is needed. This revolution of attitude in the school will engender a change in the child. Nature and naturalness will take the place of the formal studies and formalism.

The school should be a republic of childhood where the right of each individual to full development is recognised. The purpose of education is to place the child *en rapport* with his environment, and this is done by training him in responsiveness and in power of organising his experience. Education is a growth of self-consciousness.

Instead of a free republic of childhood, the school of today is modelled and controlled on the lines of a regiment. Indeed, under present conditions it could hardly be otherwise. The immense classes, varying from forty or fifty to over one hundred children, entrusted to each teacher preclude education, and indeed even instruction, to a great extent.

¹ "Education does not mean teaching people to know what they do not know; it means teaching them to behave as they do not behave. It is not teaching the youth of England the shapes of letters and the tricks of numbers, and then leaving them to turn their arithmetic to roguery and their literature to lust. It is, on the contrary, training them into the perfect exercise and kingly continence of their bodies and souls, by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precept, and by praise; but, above all, by example."—*Crown of Wild Olive*, sec. 144.

Most of the mechanical drudgery and routine of the school are due to the size of the classes. Until the class has been reduced to quite half the present size, it is useless to look for scientific principles at work in the school. The school is compelled by its numbers to restrict its efforts to instruction, and that of the most formal kind. The three R's can be taught by mechanical methods, and to large classes of children, but education is impossible under these conditions. Perhaps some day we shall see the futility of placing in the hands of the child these intellectual weapons without giving him the culture which would prompt their use in after-life.

We have considered the privileges of the community, which indeed are now universally recognised; but the corresponding duties are not quite so readily accepted. If it be the privilege of the community to provide mental food for its future citizens, surely its duty in providing physical food for those who need it is equally obvious. Moreover, the absolute futility of providing mental food without physical nourishment has only to be stated to be accepted. It is indeed of crucial importance that the intelligence of future citizens should be cultivated, but it is of *vital* importance that their bodily powers and physical stamina should be fully developed. A nation to be great must make of its citizens good animals. An ill-fed, half-starved child will never reach the full stature of a good citizen. A man's productive capacity is dependent upon his powers of feeding and assimilation. The duty and privilege of the State to provide sustenance have hitherto been only very intermittently, if at all, recognised.

In London, Manchester, and other large towns voluntary agencies are doing something to provide food and clothing for those little ones whom the State compels to attend school, but what is done is done as charity, and is fearfully inadequate. Some of us know how utterly futile, how extravagant, our present system is in which we attempt to educate these starving children of the State. A little while ago a child of five was introduced to me; he rarely sleeps at home, preferring to spend the night in a Covent Garden basket on the chance of an apple for breakfast, rather than watching "faver and muvver" chewing the sole crust of the morning. During the last ten years the School Board of London have thrice endeavoured to deal with the matter, but the results hitherto have been nil; and were it not for such charitable funds as that organised by the

Referee newspaper, the lot of these hungry children would be indeed sad. As it is, these funds suffice to feed rather more than half the total number of children who need food. The last committee of the Board came to certain conclusions, here enumerated, but nothing further resulted :—

“(1) It should be deemed to be part of the duty of any authority by law responsible for the compulsory attendance of children at school to ascertain what children, if any, come to school in a state unfit to get normal profit by the school work—whether by reason of underfeeding, physical disability, or otherwise—and that there should be the necessary inspection for that purpose.

“(2) That where it is ascertained that children are sent to school ‘underfed,’ it should be part of the duty of the authority to see that they are provided, under proper conditions, with the necessary food.

“(3) That the authority should co-operate in any existing or future voluntary efforts to that end.

“(4) That, in so far as such voluntary efforts fail to cover the ground, the authority should have the power and the duty to supplement them.

“(5) That where dinners are provided it is desirable that they should be open to all children and should be paid for by tickets, previously obtained, which parents should pay for, unless they are reported by the Board’s officers to be unable by misfortune to find the money; but in no case should any visible distinction be made between paying and non-paying children.

“(6) That where the Board’s officers report that the underfed condition of any child is due to the culpable neglect of a parent (whether by reason of drunkenness or other gross misconduct), the Board should have the power and the duty to prosecute the parent for cruelty, and that, in case the offence is persisted in, there should be power to deal with the child under the Industrial Schools Acts.”

In Paris the municipality supplies all children with a midday meal, at the rate of about a penny a day for those who may wish to pay, and gratuitous for the others. No distinction is shown, and the children themselves are unable to say who do and who do not pay. The meal is set in the assembly hall of the school, and is of a simple yet nutritious nature. A similar arrangement is in force in the city of Brussels, supported by

charitable, supplemented by communal funds. In a few American cities, too, something is done in this direction. In Germany and in France generally the children of poor parents are exempt from whatever school fees there may be; and further, the school authorities must provide the children with proper clothes to attend school, as well as any books, etc., that may be required.¹ England sadly needs such a law. It cuts one to the quick to go into a poorly warmed school on a raw winter's morning, and see the bare feet and pinched faces of the little ones, many of whom have come to school without breakfast. The ragged children seem to shrink from contact with their better-clothed brothers—as social lepers they are excluded from polite society! How terribly keen this repulsion must be, when it is considered that, naturally, children, like dogs, are democrats.

On the next page is a table showing approximately what is being done by various continental cities for these little social lepers. It was compiled by a committee of the municipality of Brussels, where the question of providing food and clothing for needy school children, entirely from communal funds, has excited considerable discussion. (See also Miss Montgomery's article in vol. ii. *Special Reports.*) This problem of our derelict city children, the flotsam and jetsam of society, is of a most crucial nature. Until it has been solved, the great recruiting ground of vice and criminality remains untouched.

It is these children who form the lost tenth—the submerged tenth—of our citizens, and are a permanent curse to themselves and their unfortunate country. Until we cut out this cancer from the social life, the body politic will evidence all the symptoms of organic decay. These lost ones must be claimed for and by the State. Their natural parents have sacrificed their rights by their neglect; let, then, the foster-parent, the State, take them as its children to feed and clothe as well as to train. It is much too expensive a luxury for the State to allow matters to drift as they are now. Dickens saw this long ago: "I can find—*must* find, whether I will or no—in the open streets shameful instances of neglect of children, intolerable toleration of the engenderment of paupers, idlers, thieves, races of wretched and destructive cripples both in body and mind; a

¹ That is the law, but less than half of the French communes have any funds for this purpose.

TABLE OF SUMS DISTRIBUTED FOR FOOD AND CLOTHING OF POOR CHILDREN IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS IN DIFFERENT CITIES.

Cities.	Cities.	Population.	School population.	Number of pupils aided.	Total amount expended in dollars.	Mean per inhabitant.	Mean per pupil.
<i>Cities where aid is given to needy pupils without their request.</i>							
Ghent	155,746	14,446	1,900	\$2,280	\$0.017	\$0.158
Bordeaux	252,102	18,000	3,600	6,000	.024	.333
Rotterdam	272,042	13,900	3,500	3,440	.013	.247
Berlin	1,820,340	183,633	3,500 2,051 25,051	7,500	.015	.158
Dresden	320,600	30,000	300	750	.002	.025
Vienna	1,495,764	162,786	13,97	71,444	.048	.439
<i>Cities where aid is given to needy children at the request of parents.</i>							
Antwerp	256,000	18,244	550	3,200	.012	.175
Paris	2,424,000	143,554	17,263	161,000	.066	1.120
Lyons	438,077	21,500	8,000	12,000	.027	.558
Lille	200,325	17,300	11,000	11,800	.057	.658
Roubaix	115,390	12,983	10,125	13,533	.115	1.671
Marseilles	406,919	25,005	3,400	4,753	.011	.185
Barmen	128,129	22,656	600	3,750	.029	.165
Geneva	80,111	3,664	330	1,650	.021	.445
Zurich	126,497	10,171	161	292	.002	.028
<i>City where assistance is given partly to all pupils, and where needy children alone receive the other part.</i>							
Liege	160,841	16,040	6,891	6,720	.042	.41

a Primary schools only.

(C. R., 1898-99, p. 109.)

misery to themselves, a misery to the community, a disgrace to civilisation, and an outrage on Christianity. I know it to be a fact as easy of demonstration as any sum in any of the elementary rules of arithmetic, that if the State would begin its work and duty at the beginning, and would with the strong hand take those children out of the streets while they are yet children, and wisely train them, it would make them a part of England's glory, not its shame—of England's strength, not its weakness—would raise good soldiers and sailors and good citizens and many great men out of the seeds of its criminal population ; it would clear London streets of the most terrible objects they smite the sight with—myriads of little children who awfully reverse our Saviour's words, and are not of the Kingdom of Heaven but of the Kingdom of Hell." (*The Uncommercial Traveller.*)

However, this moral obligation of the community has been opposed mainly upon two grounds, both deserving of the most serious consideration. First, the enormous expense which such a system would entail ; and second, the danger of weakening what is already far too weak—the parental responsibilities of the individual.

There are in this matter only two logical positions—namely, the individualistic and socialistic. Unfortunately, most modern States occupy neither position ; they sit on the fence accepting something of both alternatives : possibly this position, though not logical nor comfortable, is the only one at present practicable.

Life is, after all, largely a matter of compromise. Ideals are to be aimed at—never hit. It is the striving after, not the attaining of ideals that is the motive force behind human endeavour. Ideals recede farther and farther as we advance ; they rise towards the stars as we seek them. Like the spirit of some Alpine climber, who sees peak after peak rise as he rises, so do the ideals of life beckon men to the stars.

The weakening of individual responsibility by the socialistic efforts of modern communities is bound to have a most disastrous effect on the State, particularly on such States as England and America, whose very existence depends on the careful fostering of the individualistic characteristics of the people.

Unfortunately, while we argue children starve, and having gone so far as it has in providing mental food for its children,

fortunate and unfortunate, the modern State cannot now, for its own sake, refuse to provide that necessary physical nourishment which alone can make the mental food palatable and nourishing. Compulsory education involves more than some imagine.

The two problems touched upon in this chapter are of immense social and political importance. Their outlook is, however, very different. It is impossible for the most optimistic to view the growth of our cities, with its concomitant growth of poverty, without the greatest alarm. Such extremes of poverty as one may find in London, Paris, Berlin, or New York to-day are new in the history of the world,¹ and equally new are the other extremes of huge wealth lying side by side, cheek by jowl, with fearful poverty. This violent and unnatural contrast will produce violent and unnatural remedies. At least that is the history of violent contrasts all the world over. The problem is in no sense an educational one, and will never become so until the primary social problem has been solved. "To educate men who must be condemned to poverty is but to make them restive; to base on a state of most glaring social inequality political institutions under which men are theoretically equal is to stand a pyramid on its apex" (H. George, *Progress and Poverty*, Introduction). Education is neither a panacea nor a source of social evils. The sooner the true nature of the problem is recognised and its only remedy applied, so much the better for the community. The State recognises its duty to the defective, the insane, and the criminal—it must recognise its duty, too, to the naked and hungry.

Although so much remains to be effected, yet we must not forget what has been done to ameliorate and improve the moral and social condition of the children of our lower classes. It is not so many years since Elizabeth Browning's impassioned appeal made English people realise the wretched lives of the little ones; it is not so long since public-houses reserved special rooms for the use of their child-customers.

Both in industrial France and Germany to-day mothers will

¹ "It is my deliberate opinion that if, standing on the threshold of being, one were given the choice of entering life as a *Tierra del Fuegan*, a black-fellow of Australia, an Esquimaux in the Arctic Circle, or among the lowest classes in such a highly civilised country as Great Britain, he would make infinitely the better choice in selecting the lot of the savage."—H. George in *Progress and Poverty*, chap. ii.

dip bread into brandy and give that for their tiny ones to breakfast on, whilst in America boys are, it is said, sent to truant schools to keep them from the drinking saloon. Even here at home the writer met a few days ago a bright little Irish lad, under five, who is habitually given whisky by his grandparents.

"To what an alarming extent alcoholism is prevalent among school children is brought out by an investigation recently made in a national school at Bonn. It appears that 16 per cent. of the pupils never drank milk, and had indeed lost the taste for it altogether. Among 247 boys and girls seven or eight years of age, there was not a single one who had not tasted wine, beer, or brandy, and only some 25 per cent. had never taken spirits. About half the children took alcohol in some form once or twice per day regularly, and twenty children received a drop of brandy from their parents in the morning 'for strength.' Such children, of course, were mere ballast in the first few school hours. In all cases where alcohol was consumed, the children showed lack of attention and general listlessness. Strange to say, the girls were more often given drops of brandy than the boys, probably for the sake of 'strengthening' their delicate constitutions or their weak nerves. The evil certainly lies with the parents, for no healthy child begotten of parents who are not regular drunkards naturally acquires the taste for alcoholic beverages. It is in the homes that this most acute and far-reaching form of the evil must be combated, and that can hardly be done by legislative enactments." (*The Practical Teacher.*)

The other problem is mainly an educational one--namely, how best to bridge over the gap between the school and life. As the years roll on that old-world detachment of the school from the world outside will, we think, disappear--that mutual suspicion between teacher and parent will give place, let us hope, to a better understanding of each other's duties and a consequent co-operation in the duty of child-training. The truth will be recognised that it is only by harmonious working of both parent and teacher that the best result can be obtained. The recognition of the high nature of their task will command mutual respect and sympathy. For what is this task upon which they are engaged? It is the training of citizens--strong, sturdy men and women, men of high physical and moral stamina and women of pure beauty. In England, as in France,

Germany, and America, the existence of the State depends upon a continuous supply of trained citizens—of men and women prepared for the burden of civilisation and ready to carry on the great work which the race, guided by some instinctive consciousness, is doing. What this “increasing purpose” is it is impossible for us to say. Man climbs instinctively; he cannot see the end ; yet though the end is hid it is well to know what are those qualities necessary to the good citizen, what the foundation is upon which the continuous prosperity of a nation is reared.

“Its foundation is laid in pure domestic life, in commercial integrity, in a high standard of moral worth and of public spirit, in simple habits, in courage, uprightness, and a certain soundness and moderation of judgment which springs quite as much from character as from intellect. If you would form a wise judgment of the future of a nation, observe carefully whether these qualities are increasing or decreasing.

“Observe especially what qualities count for most in public life. Is character becoming of greater or less importance? Are the men who obtain the highest posts in the nation men of whom in private life and irrespective of party competent judges speak with genuine respect? Are they of sincere convictions, consistent lives, indisputable integrity? . . . It is by observing this moral current that you can best cast the horoscope of a nation.” (Lecky, *The Political Value of History*.)

CHAPTER III.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND.

THE English system of training citizens is the resultant of many convergent forces. England is the land of compromise. The National Church is a compromise, the political constitution is a compromise, the system of training citizens is a compromise; indeed, one might add that the national character itself is a compromise. How far this tendency to compromise is a national defect or virtue does not concern us here, it will suffice for us to have recognised it. It is a concomitant attribute of that intensely individualistic tendency of the Anglo-Celt which excites the admiration of the philosophic foreigner, particularly of those keen yet genial critics of ours on the other side of La Manche. The tendency to compromise makes true individualism possible. The truest freedom is only possible through sacrifice. Pure personal freedom involves in practice the grossest tyranny. It is by the recognition of mutual obligations that English freedom has developed into the fairest form of liberty.¹ Nevertheless, the symmetry of the structure is lost by constant compromise. There is a lack of technique, of finish, of artistic unity in the picture of English education which detracts from its value *as a picture*. It is not my intention to outline the history of education in England; but, to understand the present system of primary schools, it is necessary to say a word as to their origin and development. The English people resent State control and interference more than any other civilised people. This plain English folk, with

¹ "We would hardly suspect this public tendency, after taking a distant view of the British constitution; but on a closer view it is the first thing we see. It appears to be an aggregate of privileges, that is, of sanctioned injustices. The truth is that it is a body of contracts, that is, of recognised rights. Every one, great or small, has his own, which he defends with all his might. . . . By this sentiment Englishmen have conquered and preserved public liberty." (Taine, *History of English Literature*, vol. i. p. 119.)

their Wat Tylers, have cut the measure of the official. They are, or at any rate were, firm believers in the power of private individuals and voluntary effort to meet all the exigencies of national life. Up to 1870, education in England was left entirely to the efforts of private individuals and societies, supplemented, of late years it is true, by monetary grants from the State.

The obligation of the State to provide a training for its citizens was not recognised. England was the last great country of the world to admit the principle of State training, and she only admitted it then because it was shown conclusively that the voluntary system had broken down completely, and quite failed to meet the demands of the times. The alternative was either State training or the imperilling of the life of the State by the growth of an ignorant and uneducated class of citizens. Reluctantly the duty was undertaken, and the system of Board Schools inaugurated. Nevertheless, the high tide of communistic endeavour was tinctured by tradition and controlled by compromise. The Act of 1870 was a triumph of the spirit of compromise. At this time, when, as we have said, every other civilised nation had established for some years a system of State-controlled national schools, only one-third of the children between ten and twelve years of age, and two-fifths of those between six and ten years of age, who ought to have been at school, were actually there. England had indeed no truly national system of education, and it was now evident that the voluntary system had failed. This fact—the fact that England more or less deliberately handicapped herself in the battle of the nations by delaying the provision of intellectual weapons for her citizens—must never be forgotten when comparing the English school of to-day with its rivals.

The extraordinary fact remains, however, that she is deliberately repeating this suicidal policy in the matter of organising modern secondary training for her citizens. For such a delay is of a most serious character. The first twenty or thirty years of such a national system of training must perforce be sacrificed to what one may term the mechanics of training, as distinguished from the spirit of the training. These decades are needed for building schools and making the system comprehensive. They are also needed for building *parents*, that is, wise, true parents—parents who by personal experience have learned to appreciate and value to the

full the advantages of education, and who are determined that no sacrifice on their part shall be wanting to complete the training of their children. Such parents will allow nothing to come between the child and the school. It is only when school attendance has become automatic, as it has done in Germany, that the system may be said to have left the mechanics of education behind. In these matters England, as a whole, is to-day where Germany was in 1870, and it is only in the large urban areas of England that bright oases show what, it is hoped, the whole will be in another twenty years.

As a result of the Education Act and of previous efforts, England possesses to-day a thoroughly comprehensive system of primary schools. In 1900 there were in England and Wales nearly a million places provided for the future. There were places provided for 6,544,092 children; the number of children enrolled was 5,705,675, and the number in average attendance reached 4,687,646.

The "brick and mortar" period of education has been, let us hope, passed in England. One is compelled to admit that the *practical* type of mind which waxes enthusiastic over a fine building, regardless of the spirit within, is distinctly characteristic of both England and America, though not unknown in France and Germany. It is a phase in the evolution of the ideal.

The public primary schools of England may be divided into two categories—schools in which dogmatic religious teaching is taught, and schools in which it is not. Parenthetically it may be stated that in practically all English primary schools undenominational religion or Bible teaching forms part of the curriculum. Bible reading *without comment* would be ludicrous were it not pathetic. There are no godless schools in England. The former class of schools—*i.e.*, in which dogmatic religion is taught—includes schools connected with the National Society of the Church of England, the Roman Catholic schools, and the Wesleyan schools. The latter class is made up of Board schools, which are controlled and partly financed by the local ratepayers, and in which no dogmatic religious teaching may be given, and of the so-called *British* schools, which are undenominational schools, supported to some extent by private effort. English schools are sometimes classified as Board and Voluntary, but the latter term is ambiguous. It is

still less correct to classify the English denominational schools as "private" (as is done by the American Commissioner of Education in his annual reports), seeing that they have been defined by Act of Parliament as public elementary schools, and are open to every child of the State irrespective of religious opinions. If these are private schools, then every primary school in Germany is a private school.

Of the public elementary schools in England and Wales there are 11,777 connected with the Church of England, 458 Wesleyan schools, 1,045 Roman Catholic schools, and 1,079 British and other schools. There are therefore 14,359 Voluntary schools, to 5,758 Board schools. There are being educated in the Church schools 2,300,150 children, 156,666 in the Wesleyan, 316,769 in the Roman Catholic, and 269,421 in the British schools. Thus there is a total of 3,043,006 children in the Voluntary schools. In the Board schools there are 2,662,669 children enrolled; so that the number of schools connected with the Church of England is about double the number of Board schools, though the number of scholars enrolled is greater in the latter.

This is due to the Board schools being largely urban, and the Church schools largely rural. The competition of the Board school with its superior public resources has practically killed the Church urban schools, excepting some of the best of them. Many of these last have long and glorious histories behind them, which have enabled them to appeal successfully against the superior attractions of the neighbouring Board school.

The rural school in England generally makes a sad picture. At the base of its troubles is poverty of funds. The one thing needed to improve rural education all over the world is more money, and England is no exception. The premises are old, sometimes insanitary, desks antiquated and unhygienic, apparatus and equipment meagre, and staff composed largely of unqualified persons—young women who have been promoted from dressmaking to citizen-making, and children of a certain age but uncertain culture. But there are many brilliant exceptions to this picture, and there is no better school in England than the Church country school, where the clergyman and his wife are constant visitors and helpers, and where the local squire and his lady add their quota to the good work. There is an admirable tone engendered in these schools, and one's

only regret is that they are so few. It must never be forgotten that universal school boards would spoil that picture.

Administration.—In the matter of school administration only the salient points will be touched upon. In general terms it may be said that in England, the home of local government, the schools are controlled and governed by the local community through the representatives elected by the ratepayers, or in the case of denominational schools by the local managers, however appointed. The English primary school is financed by the national exchequer and the local ratepayer or subscriber. It is through this power of financing the schools that the central authority largely derives its power over them. The central authority for education in England and Wales is the Board of Education. This Board consists of a President and certain other members, with a large staff of permanent officials. The Board is divided into two branches—that concerned with primary, and that concerned with secondary education. There has also recently been established a Consultative Committee, consisting of unofficial members, for the purpose of advising the Board on any matter referred to it for consideration, and of compiling a register of teachers. The Board of Education annually dispenses to the schools a considerable amount of public money, and the conditions upon which these sums are dispensed are issued annually in the form of the "Code" and the "Directory." For the purpose of seeing that these conditions are fulfilled and maintained, Inspectors are instructed to visit the schools periodically, generally without notice, and to report the result of their observations to the central authority. Upon the character of their report depends to some extent the amount of grant paid by the central authority to the local authority. The examination of individual children and the old system of payment by results (all very well at one time) have entirely disappeared from the English school. Indeed, many persons consider that the pendulum has swung too far, and that a system of leaving certificates, such as those obtaining in Scotland and France, is much needed in the English school, if the thorough and conscientious work of the past is to be maintained.

The old system used examination as a means of gauging the work of the school, and paying for that work at a fixed rate. Examination became identified with payment by results. The general acknowledgment of the iniquity and tyranny of this

system of payments has led to a good deal of indiscriminate criticism of the value of examinations altogether in the school. Examinations, however, have a certain value; they are a test of certain sides of school training, these, however, not the most valuable; and they exercise a stimulating influence on both teacher and pupil. Of course, stimulants are always injurious and may be dispensed with—later on! Until the perfect teacher is found, we must be content with the ordinary mortal, who is all the better for an occasional “shake-up” from outside. In Germany, I believe the teachers themselves would gladly see the Government Inspector oftener.

Examinations undoubtedly compel a certain thoroughness, conscientiousness, and strenuous endeavour. They discover the nakedness of the land. They are fatal to superficiality, carelessness, and spasmodic efforts of any kind. A very “Palace of Truth” is the examination-room. But examinations have very serious limitations, which I sometimes think we are prone to overlook. It should never be forgotten that, as a complete test of any system of training, examinations are—I was going to say, absolutely, but I will say, comparatively—useless, because the test is altogether incomplete: practically, none of the really valuable elements of school training can be measured by an examination. You can measure fairly accurately the relative capacities of children for retaining facts, but you cannot gauge the child’s love for the beautiful, the good, and the true; the character of the child is of too spiritual a nature for you to measure it with so rough a machine as an examination. The one great purpose of school training is beyond this test.

But the English mind is not spiritual, it is practical: it wants facts: it loves facts. So we find educators asking for a return to the old system—they want results, they want facts to deal with. Accuracy, they tell us, is disappearing from our schools. However, provided we have a little more intelligence, what matters a little less accuracy? Children were merely calculating-machines—now they are growing into men and women.

School is a place for educating children, not merely instructing them. Instruction is not the end; it is a means to an end—education. If our children are a little more intelligent, a little more like boys and girls; if our schools are brighter, happier, more sympathetic towards childhood, what matters it

if the pupils cannot spell quite so well nor calculate quite so accurately as they did in the days of the old dispensation?

The essential facts to be grasped in the system of administration of the English school are these:—

The schools are local, communal, parochial institutions, not State institutions. The control of the people over the schools is complete—that is, of course, as far as the State is concerned. The curriculum of the school is no longer prescribed by the State; all that the State retains is a power of veto in cases where the efficiency of the school is liable to be impaired. The appointment and dismissal of teachers is entirely in the hands of the local authorities. The laws of school attendance, too, are in their hands, subject, however, to the approval of the central authority. In fact, one may say that, subject to certain reservations intended to secure efficiency and to avoid the worst features of popular control, the power of the local authority over the schools is complete.

This local authority is of two kinds—the elective and non-elective. The former is the school board proper, and consists (except for London) of from five to fifteen members elected *ad hoc*, and by all ratepayers, men and women. It is gratifying to record that the number of women elected on these boards is considerable, and increasing. The number of members is somewhat arbitrary. A town like Leeds or Birmingham is represented by fifteen members, whilst a village of less than a hundred ratepayers may riot in the luxury of a five-member board.

The small administrative areas are one of the greatest curses to rural education, and until they have been abolished the condition of the country school must continue lamentable.

The non-elective authority constitutes the governing body of the denominational and British schools.

The management of the Church of England schools is vested in a committee of which the incumbent is generally the chairman—sometimes the only, and always the most active, member. This body is, as a rule, purely denominational, though sometimes, when the parish agrees to pay a voluntary rate, other members may be co-opted or elected, and the dreaded School Board kept out.

In the Catholic school the priest is the active member, the remainder of the committee of management being generally sleeping partners.

The British school is a relic. It was established by the British and Foreign School Society, and flourished before 1870; but as the religious, unsectarian teaching which is distinctive of that Society is also distinctive of most Board schools, the British school was generally transferred to a board. Where it survives it is, curiously enough, maintained in order to keep out a School Board and the dreaded rate.

School Laws.—The parent or guardian of every child between five and fourteen years of age must cause such child to attend a certified efficient school every time the school is open, unless the child is receiving efficient instruction in some other manner, or being twelve years of age, or more, is exempt from attendance at school under certain conditions.

These conditions of exemption are, speaking generally, either—

1. That the child is twelve years of age, and has passed an examination in a certain standard of proficiency, which standard is fixed by the local authority. (This standard is sometimes, particularly in rural districts, appallingly low, and is a public monument to audacious ignorance.) Or,
2. That the child is thirteen, and has made in any five years, between the ages of five and thirteen, 350 attendances per annum, or has passed Standard IV.¹

Children employed in agriculture are, when the local authority so decides, only required to make 250 attendances a year between the ages of eleven and thirteen, which latter is the age of total exemption in such districts. Other points requiring notice are that no child under twelve may be employed in labour of any kind, and no child under thirteen may be employed in mines.

Between the ages of twelve and fourteen, children may be employed in labour for half-time if they have passed a certain standard of proficiency, or made 300 attendances per annum for five years. For blind and deaf children the age at which employment may begin is sixteen years. All contraventions of these laws involve a penalty of from 5s. to £5.

¹ The "standard" of the English school corresponds to the "grade" of the American school, and covers roughly the work done in each school year. There are (or rather were) seven standards, corresponding to the seven years of school life (7-14).

What strikes the observer in the English laws is their extreme complexity. They have grown consequent upon a growth in public opinion. Compulsory education is a new phase in English public life, and the restiveness of the Saxon has taken none too kindly to the bit. We shall see that public opinion in America still further lags behind. There is something to be said both for and against compulsory education, and it is only the extreme danger to the State of having an uneducated class within its borders that justifies compulsion.

Compulsory education is never popular. Like vaccination, it is a purely preventive measure, and is always apt to excite the indignation of some of the best elements in the community. Better than any compulsory laws are attractive schools and sympathetic teachers. It is only in communities with poor schools that the attendance is bad. Make school pleasant and attractive, and you will need but few attendance officers. Let us have the best teachers and beautiful schools, and our children will follow us there as of old the children of Hamelin followed the pied piper. As for the present law, it is too harsh for the thoughtless, and too mild for the vicious parent.

School Finance.—“In 1833 Great Britain began with a vote of £20,000; in 1860 it was £800,000, in 1897 it was over £9,000,000 in public grants for elementary education in this island alone, exclusive of nearly £5,000,000 raised by rates for the same purpose. For the first quarter of a century after the passing of the first Elementary Education Act, the total expenditure in England and Wales under this heading, from all sources, public and private, is estimated at £219,000,000. Secondary and technical education draw £1,500,000 sterling annually from endowments and local rates, while the universities and university colleges derive more than £1,000,000 from income and subsidies. The total education fund from public grants, endowments, and other sources, must amount to fully £20,000,000 a year for Great Britain and Ireland.”—Graham Balfour in *The Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland*, p. xxxvi.

For the year ending 31st December 1900, the total grant made by the State Treasury towards the expenses of primary education in England and Wales reached the sum of £8,973,871 11s. 9d., made up as follows:—

				£	s.	d.
1. Annual Grants for day } day	5,095,929	12	9
and evening schools } evening	195,641	14	2
2. Fee Grants for Day Scholars	2,341,812	16	4
3. Grants for Blind and Deaf Children	19,849	4	0
4. Grants to School Boards under Act 33 & 34 Vict. c. 75, s. 97	205,865	14	0
5. Annual Grants to Training Colleges	195,344	16	11
6. Pensions and Gratuities to Teachers	47,711	1	11
7. Administration :—				£	s.	d.
Office in London ...	82,441	15	2			
Inspection ...	210,006	13	2			
Contingencies of Office ...	1,668	6	9			
8. Organisation of Districts, etc., under Act 33 & 34 Vict. c. 75	294,206	15	1
9. Special Inquiries	749	11	10
10. Aid Grant	576,760	4	9
11. Refund of Cost of Training recovered from Teachers				<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	£8,973,871	11	9

Besides this grant from the central authority, the schools also draw upon local support in one of two ways:—

1. If the school is a Board school it draws upon the rates for its support. The amount so paid varies enormously, from one halfpenny in the pound up to three and fourpence in the pound. This variable incidence of local taxation is the cause of much of the unpopularity of the Board school system in many parts of England, as well as the fact that one third of England and Wales escapes the School Board rate altogether. This is due generally to the local needs being supplied by a voluntary school. This is unfair to everybody—to the voluntary subscriber, because he pays when others do not; to the teacher and school generally, because the means are meagre; to the general citizen, because he is not asked to do his duty as a citizen; but, above all, it is unfair to the child and handicaps him unfairly in competition with other children.

The present system of rating is extremely unsatisfactory and indefensible. It is the main cause of the inefficiency of much of the rural education in England. It presses heaviest upon those least able to bear it. The rate is at or above a shilling in the pound in 20 per cent. of the English boroughs, 17 per cent. of the English parishes, in 8.7 per cent. of the Welsh boroughs, and in 23.4 per cent. of the Welsh parishes. The system is capricious and often harsh. It has all the vices that any system of rating might reasonably be expected to possess.

The amount per child thus raised by local rates of course varies according to the locality, but the average amounts are as follows :—

For English Counties £ 0 19 4	per child.
„ Welsh Counties 0 19 8	„
„ English County Boroughs 1 11 3	„
„ Welsh County Boroughs 1 0 4	„

2. The Denominational or so-called Voluntary schools have to depend on voluntary subscriptions to supplement the Treasury grant. The amounts thus collected by the different denominations are as follows :—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	LOCAL INCOME PER SCHOLAR (1900).			EXPENDITURE PER SCHOLAR.	
	FROM FEES, BOOKS, ETC.	VOLUNTARY SUBSCRIPTIONS.	ON TEACHERS' SALARIES.	TOTAL.	
Church Schools ...	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1 4	0 6 7	1 15 5	2 6 3		
Wesleyan Schools ...	4 10	0 3 2	1 15 11	2 6 8	
Roman Catholic Schools	0 7	0 6 2	1 10 9	2 4 4	
British and other Unde-nominational Schools	2 11	0 7 1	1 17 9	2 9 5	
All Voluntary Schools ...	1 7	0 6 5 (RATES.)	1 15 2	2 6 5	
Board Schools ...	0 5	1 5 6	2 5 2	2 17 8	

The total amount per annum spent on the training of each child in average attendance in the English school is £2 11s. 7d.

By the Act of 1891 every parent was given the right to obtain free education for his children, and the Government gave a special grant in lieu of fees to all schools, which grant practically abolished school fees. As a result, education in England to-day is gratuitous and compulsory. To be accurate, 649,321 children only paid school fees in 1900.

School Buildings.—It is impossible to speak in general terms of English school buildings. They vary enormously, from the uncomfortable, cold, damp village schoolhouse, which has so many functions in life to fulfil, up to the magnificent, palatial structures which the great progressive boards of England and

Wales have erected for the use of their future citizens. Poor school buildings are not peculiar to England; they are to be found in America, France, and Germany, and but little satisfaction can be gained by a prolonged contemplation of them. It may, however, be stated that the rural districts of England do not monopolise them. Indeed, too often they are found in the centre of our largest cities. However, they are rapidly disappearing, and what remain are evidence not so much of a stupid economy as of the enormous revolution which has taken place in school architecture during the last thirty years. It was in 1847 that the class-room system was introduced into America, at Boston. Twenty years after that the accepted type of school in England was that intended to carry out the Lancasterian system of teaching. The idea was to have as many classes under the eye of the head teacher as possible; so we find the barn recommended as a good model for the school architect to set before him. To-day in England there are still too many of such schools, but the ingenuity of the modern architect, and the requirements of those in authority, have tended to transform them, by means of glass partitions, etc., into tolerably modern structures with the necessary class-rooms. The general suitability of school buildings in England is rapidly improving.

It is more profitable to describe the modern English school premises, which on the whole may be said to be admirably suited for their purpose in life, and probably equal to any school buildings elsewhere.

The infant school is modelled on that of the school for older scholars; play-rooms are rarely provided, gardens only occasionally, and the space for games, marching, etc., is none too liberal. The efforts of the teachers, however, generally succeed in making these schools very pleasant places for the little ones, and there are few pictures more beautiful than that of some of our best infant schools.

The English primary school of the modern type is built on the Central Hall principle, and costs from £10 to £20 per seat. The average for Board schools is £14 18s. 7d. The class-rooms are generally lighted from the left, heated and ventilated on the Plenum system, or by direct radiation. The class-rooms accommodate from fifty to sixty children, allowing ten square feet for each child. The desks are dual, and generally of two sizes. But little care is taken

to provide the child with a suitable seat and desk. The modern schools have an accommodation of from 1200 to 1400 children, and in these the sexes are sometimes educated together. Of course, separate hygienic and sanitary arrangements are provided, and these are of an eminently satisfactory character. Such immense schools require unusual skill in their organisation, and the results, as a rule, fully justify the care bestowed. Besides the class-rooms and central hall for assembly, they often possess swimming-baths in the basement, where the children are taught to swim by a competent instructor. There are specially fitted rooms for cookery and laundry work for the girls, and rooms for work in iron and wood for the boys. Special cloak-rooms and lavatory accommodation also are provided.

Of these English schools, many possess savings banks and libraries. These libraries average 221 volumes each.

TABLE SHOWING NUMBER OF SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS
AND LIBRARIES.

Year ending 31st August.	Number of public elementary day schools in which have been established	
	Saving Banks. No record before 1879.	School Libraries. No record before 1880.
1879	848	—
1880	1087	2092
1881	1187	2382
1882	1376	2603
1883	1718	3046
1884	1979	3322
1885	2046	3589
1886	2142	3842
1887	2255	4056
1888	2429	4142
1889	2509	4311
1890	2498	4401
1891	2629	4967
1892	16383	5560
1893	8548	5832
1894	8661	6225
1895	8410	6381

¹ Abolition of school fees.

The total amount annually spent on school buildings has nearly doubled during the last ten years. In 1886 this sum amounted to £2,323,802, in 1891 it was £2,428,633, while in 1896 it reached the large sum of £4,069,148.

The curriculum of the English public elementary school has been fixed largely, from year to year, by the Code annually issued by the Board of Education. The tendency has been clearly to an enrichment of the curriculum. In the best of the English infant schools a profound revolution of method has taken place during recent years.¹ Formal lessons in the three R's have disappeared, and the whole of the training received by the little ones has been based on the principles of the kindergarten as enunciated by Froebel. Much of the old routine still remains, nevertheless there is no part of the English educational system so brimful of real promise as the work that is now being done in our best infant schools. The teachers are enthusiastic and sympathetic, and eager to learn, and in many respects are closely similar to the best American teachers. This revolution of spirit in the infant school is due mainly to the freedom which the central authority has allowed them. It is freedom alone—that is the one thing needful to revolutionise the school. Make your teachers strong, and allow them complete liberty. That is the policy of the wise State.

In the primary school the early Codes after 1860 prescribed only the three R's, but little by little this meagre *menu* has been added to, until we reach the full and wide curriculum of the Code of 1900, which is practically identical with the curriculum of the German Volksschule. Indeed, it is if anything the richer of the two.

The compulsory subjects under the Code previous to 1900 were the three R's—reading, writing, and arithmetic—together with needlework for the girls and drawing for the boys. One

¹ An Australian writer placed on record the opinion of a clerk to an English school board. "His experience, and it agreed with that of most men who had studied the subject, was that the Germans were not practical enough. Froebel was not practical. His system was all theory; it would never get results. His ideas about symbolism and all that were altogether ideal. The English people had reduced kindergarten to practice. Just so, and the reduction has been thorough. The resultant system is as complete as the solemnisation of a wedding with the bride absent." (Grasby, *Teaching in Three Continents*, p. 78.)

other subject at least might be taken, known as a class subject; as a matter of fact, nearly all schools took two class subjects. Then in the larger schools the top classes would take one or two extra subjects, known as specific subjects, such as algebra, domestic economy, etc. Probably the following figures will enlighten the reader much better than any amount of description could do.

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF DEPARTMENTS IN WHICH SCHOLARS WERE EXAMINED IN 1899.

—	Counties.	County Boroughs.
English	10,784	2,410
Geography	15,054	2,818
Elementary Science ...	18,031	3,270
History	5,106	773
Suitable Occupations .	103	30
Domestic Economy ...	699	187
Needlework	6,117	835

In 83.2 per cent. of all the schools singing was taught by note—generally by the Tonic Sol fa (movable doh) system.

It should be explained that needlework, although compulsory, might be *presented* as an ordinary subject or as a class subject. It is as the latter that it figures in the above table. The next table gives the number of *schools* in which were taught

—	Counties.	County Boroughs.
Drawing	16,378	2,165
Science	747	328
Physical Exercise ...	7,757	1,358
Military Drill ...	2,059	600

Lastly, we have the number of scholars who were taught

—	Counties.	County Boroughs.
Cookery	104,591	94,968
Laundry Work	18,841	6772
Dairy Work	12	—
Cottage Gardening	1336	14
Manual Instruction	43,906	37,386

It must be admitted that the curriculum of the English school in the past has been based mainly on monetary, not pedagogic principles. There was no unity, no pedagogic basis to the curriculum, and no direct relationship between the curriculum and environment of the school.

Under the new Code this complexity will, it is hoped, disappear; subjects will be selected for their intrinsic, not extrinsic value. Henceforth the course of instruction of the English primary school will include English (under that term is contained reading, recitation, composition, writing, and a modicum of grammar), arithmetic, drawing for boys, needle-work for girls, geography, history, object-lessons on the world around the child,¹ singing (generally by note), and physical

¹ "I start," said Ruskin, "with the general principle that every school is to be fitted for the children in its neighbourhood who are likely to grow up and live in its neighbourhood. The idea of a general education which is to fit everybody to be Emperor of Russia, and provoke a boy, whatever he is, to want to be something better, and wherever he was born, to think it a disgrace to die, is the most entirely and directly diabolical of all the countless stupidities into which the British nation has been of late betrayed by its avarice and irreligion. There are, indeed, certain elements of education which are alike necessary to the inhabitants of every spot of earth. Cleanliness, obedience, the first laws of music, mechanics, and geometry, the primary facts of geography and astronomy, and the outlines of history, should evidently be taught alike to poor and rich, to sailor and shepherd, to labourer and shop-boy. But for the rest, the efficiency of any school will be found to increase exactly in the ratio of its direct adaptation to the circumstances of the children it receives; and the quantity of knowledge to be attained in a given time being equal, its value will depend on the possibilities of its instant application.

"You need not teach botany to the sons of fishermen, architecture to shepherds, or painting to colliers; still less the elegances of grammar to children, who throughout the probable course of their total lives will have, or ought to have, little to say, and nothing to write."—*Fors Clavigera*, vol. iii.

exercise. In well-staffed schools, and under favourable circumstances, this curriculum is to be extended to include such other subject or subjects as may appear desirable.

An English boy should therefore leave the elementary school at about thirteen years of age with a fair equipment of intellectual tools. He will be able to read fluently and with some intelligence any ordinary reading-book. Much of his time in school has been devoted to oral reading, and only occasionally has he been allowed to indulge in "silent" reading. This is a relic of the old system when each boy had to read aloud before the inspector. His spelling will probably be sometimes shaky, but that is not altogether his fault or his teachers'; it is due to the wretched orthography of the English language, which is the cause of much of the mechanical teaching seen in the school, and absorbs a very large portion of the total time and energy. He will be able to cipher fairly readily; he will be acquainted with fractions, vulgar and decimal, with calculations in stocks, discount, etc. He will have acquired the art of clear writing. His knowledge of the history of even his own land will not be strong, of other lands it will be nil. He will have spent much time in what is called "Grammar"—that is, he will be able to distinguish and name the parts of speech and analyse and parse sentences; but this knowledge will not appreciably influence his mode of thought-expression. That he picks up incidentally from his teachers and his books, unfortunately too from the home and the street. His knowledge of geography will be extensive, like the British Empire, but it will often be singularly weak in its basic elements. He will often know the geography of India better than that of Cambridgeshire. He will have been introduced to the glories of a national literature unequalled by any other, but his heritage of this will sometimes be limited to a few hundred lines of "some standard author." He may too be fortunate enough to know something of the natural world around him. He will have been taught "Drawing" too; but drawing as a means of thought expression he will know nothing of. He will be able to sing a piece of music by note, and his physical powers will have been developed by exercise.

The girls will have been taught needlework, and some of them plain cooking.

Altogether a boy will have, as we have said, certain intellectual

weapons at his disposal. What he lacks, what his little German and French rivals lack, is the power of finding out things for themselves. School has not placed as its first aim—character. Examinations stopped that. The world in which the pupil lives has not been made intelligible to him. He lacks knowledge, and so the power of right judgment. The school has suffered and is still suffering from the tyranny of the three R's.

Compulsory education in England is barely thirty years old, so that in comparing the attendance of children at school in England with, say, that of children in Germany, considerable allowance must be made for that fact. The average attendance in England and Wales was for 1891 = 77.6 per cent. of the number enrolled, 1899 = 81.8 per cent., 1900 = 82.1 per cent. This varies considerably for different localities. In Bedfordshire the attendance in 1900 was 87.2 per cent. of the total number enrolled; in Westmoreland, 85.9 per cent.; whilst in Denbighshire it was 72.9 per cent., and in Pembrokeshire 71.5 per cent. In the town of West Bromwich the remarkable average of 88.1 per cent. was reached; whilst in Stockport it fell to 76.7 per cent. These figures are not above criticism. They are obtained by dividing the total number of attendances made by the number of children enrolled on the last day of the financial school year. This latter is a very fluctuating quantity, and depends upon the period in the academic year at which the financial year ends. However, as relative averages, the figures are fairly indicative of the facts.

The figures of average attendance given above include that of *all* children on the school registers, and therefore of many children who are not of school age. For purposes of comparison, therefore, it is important to have the attendances of the older children separated from those of the infants, i.e., children under seven years of age.

$$(a) \text{Attendance of older scholars in } 1900 = \frac{3,295,554}{3,662,795} = 87.51 \text{ per cent.}$$

87.51 per cent. (Even this, however, includes a considerable number of children in infant annexes under seven years of age.)

$$(b) \text{Attendance of infants} = \frac{1,460,576}{2,023,319} = 72.18 \text{ per cent.}$$

These two tables further amplify this point :—

Year.	Infants on Registers.	Average Attendance.	Percentage of Average Attendance to Infants on Registers.
1896 ...	1,928,493	1,370,919	71.08
1897 ...	1,972,331	1,389,978	70.47
1898 ...	2,012,623	1,424,839	70.79
1899 ...	2,032,261	1,494,494	72.06
1900 ...	2,023,319	1,460,576	72.18

Year.	Older Scholars on Registers.	Average Attendance.	Percentage of Average Attendance to Older Scholars on Registers.
1896 ...	3,494,496	3,051,992	87.33
1897 ...	3,534,708	3,098,565	87.66
1898 ...	3,564,243	3,129,326	87.79
1899 ...	3,621,831	3,172,444	87.59
1900 ...	3,662,795	3,205,554	87.51

These figures cannot be considered altogether unsatisfactory. The attendance of children over seven years of age in the English school is $87\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the possible. Ninety per cent. would appear from experience the attainable in this matter. Ten per cent. is not too much to allow for the accidents of childhood and the daily demands of the poor home. A careful investigation, however, shows that some areas are particularly lax in this matter of attendance. In some areas in Wales there are actually 40 per cent. of the children daily absent from school. These dark spots bring out more clearly the bright spots—for how bright must they be to make the whole so fair! As has already been pointed out, this matter of regular attendance is one of the earliest products of a State system of education. The improvement has been very gradual it is true, still, on the whole, it has been perceptible. We of to-day are beginning to reap the first-fruits of 1870. The parents of to-day have themselves been through the nation's schools; and had the school-life of their days been

made as attractive as it is to-day, I doubt not but that our school attendance would compare favourably even with that of Germany. School laws can do something, but public opinion can do much more; and until public opinion has crystallised upon the absolute necessity of a sound training for our children, this irregularity of attendance will continue. The growth in public opinion is very slow, but it is well worth waiting for. Acts of Parliament have never yet made people more moral, and this matter of attendance is largely one of morality.

The age of leaving, and the problem of child labour in England.—Democracy is extremely conservative. Reforms require enormous time to be completed among a free people. American educators, like English reformers, are constantly bewailing the slow rate at which public opinion moves. Public opinion has to be educated before a reform can be brought about; still the reform, when it does come, is much more effective and real than is the reform promulgated by a decree and willed by an autocrat.

Nothing in educational reform has shown a slower growth than the question of the age of withdrawal from the school and the employment of child labour. We shall see later on that our English folk are not peculiar in this respect. Wherever child labour is valuable, the same difficulties arise. The raising of the withdrawal age by successive Acts of Parliament is an unmistakable indication of a healthy growth of public opinion. To-day the minimum age of withdrawal is twelve. The number of children in school over ten years of age in 1900 was 34.92 per cent. of the total number of children in school. Writing in 1897, Messrs. Sadler and Edwards thus summarise this matter of attendance:—

“(1) Over 9,000,000 children have left the schools in the last twenty-five years, and as there were over 5,250,000 children on the books on the 31st August 1895, it follows that the elementary schools of England and Wales have during the last twenty-five years provided instruction for over 14,250,000 children.

“(2) The attendance of children under three years of age is decreasing. Whereas in 1875 there were 19,358 on the registers, or .7 per cent. of the total number, in 1885 there were but 8,986, or .2 per cent. of the total, and in 1895 only 3,508, or .07 per cent. of the total.

"(3) The number that leave school at ten years of age is decreasing. The percentage of scholars to the total number in the schools in the following years was as follows:—

—	10 and under 11.	11 and under 12.	12 and under 13.	13 and under 14.	14 and over.	Total over 10 years of age.
In 1875	10.67	8.82	6.28	2.38	.98	29.13
1880	10.94	9.83	7.78	3.86	1.14	33.55
1885	11.45	10.11	7.81	3.21	.89	33.47
1890	11.41	10.32	7.82	3.14	.87	33.56
1895	11.23	10.47	8.85	3.72	1.00	35.27

Thus while the percentage of the children over ten to the total number in the school was only 29.13 in 1875, and 33.55, 33.47, 33.56 respectively in the years 1880, 1885, and 1890, it had risen in 1895 to 35.27; and while in 1890 there were 548,103 children between 10 and 11, in 1891 there were 499,402 between 11 and 12—number who left, 48,701, or over one per cent. of the total number of children on books. In 1894 there were 577,060 between 10 and 11, in 1895 there were 554,603 between 11 and 12—number who left, 22,457, or less than .5 per cent. of the total children on books.

"(4) The number of children who remain at school after they are fourteen years of age, which showed a tendency to decrease from 1882 to 1892, rose from .78 per cent. of the whole number on the registers in 1892 to .85 per cent. in 1893, to .91 per cent. in 1894, and to 1 per cent. in 1895.

"(5) The present average school-life of children attending public elementary day schools is from eight to nine years." (*Special Reports*, vol. i.)

The efficiency of the enrolment of the English school is brought out in the following table, which shows the estimated number of children of the class usually found in public elementary schools, *from five to thirteen years of age*, with the number and proportion of such children enrolled:—

Age.	Estimated Number of Children at Middle of Year.	Number of Children on Registers.	Percentage of Children on Registers to estimated Number of Children.
	1900.	1900.	1900.
Between 5 and 7 ...	1,288,515	1,210,420	93.9
Between 7 and 11 ...	2,525,670	2,475,993	98.0
Between 11 and 13 ...	1,222,245	1,104,132	90.3
Total ...	5,036,430	4,790,545	95.1

The age of withdrawal is fixed, as we have seen, to some extent by the local authority. There is a decided tendency noticeable throughout the country to raise the standard of proficiency for both total and partial exemption from school. That there is ample room for such a growth in public opinion is admitted. The standard for total exemption from attendance at school was, in 1897, the Fourth for 1,209 local areas, the Fifth for 1,848 areas, and the Sixth for 140 areas only. For half-time attendance at school the standard was the Second in 182 areas, the Third in 1,562 areas, and the Fourth in 1,055 areas. The system known as the Half-time system, by which a child who has passed a certain standard of proficiency (fixed by the local authority) is allowed to attend school half-day and the factory half-day, is, it is gratifying to note, dying a natural death in England. This utterly pernicious and extravagant system is to-day found mainly in Lancashire and Yorkshire. The decrease in the number of these "half-timers" is shown by the fact that in

1876 there were 201,284 half-timers.

1880	"	193,953	"
1885	"	175,039	"
1890	"	175,437	"
1895	"	126,896	"
1900	"	89,036	"

Another aspect of this question of child labour that has attracted much attention and caused considerable pained sur-

prise, is the employment of children out of school hours. There is more suffering caused thoughtlessly than deliberately in this world, and doubtless as much of this labour is due to lack of thought as to lack of sympathy. It is extreme poverty, however, that is the main motive, and the phenomenon is due almost entirely to a bad economic system which compels the parents to eke out their miserable shillings by the pence of their children. An inquiry made by the Board of Education recently, elicited the following figures:—

Children employed out of school—

Under 7 years of age	131
7 years of age	1,120
8	4,211
9	11,027
10	22,131
11	36,775
12	47,471
13	18,556
14 and over	1,787
Age not stated	817

One might imagine it a difficult matter to find employment for children under seven years of age. Here are some details of how these are employed:—

GIRLS.

County.	Age.	Stand- ard.	Occupation.	Hours per Week.	Rate of Pay per Week.
Devon ...	6	1	Carries milk (morn- ing and evening)	35	Employed by parents
Leicester ...	6	0	Seaming hose	15	1d.
Northum- berland ...	6	1	Nurse girl ...	11	2d. and food
" ...	6	1	Nurse girl ...	29	"
Rutland ...	6	1	Nursing ...	18½	3d.
Worcester...	5	0	Pea-picking	15	1s. 3d.

BOYS.

County.	Age.	Stand-ard.	Occupation.	Hours per Week.	Rate of Pay per Week.
Beds ...	6	I	Onion peeling ...	20	8 <i>l.</i> per peck
Cambridge	5	O	Singling turnips ...	8	1 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>
"	6	O	" "	17	1 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>
Chester ...	6	O	Milk boy ...	12	1 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>
Cornwall...	6	O	Helps on farm ...	24	No wages
Kent ...	6	O	Sells papers ...	12	1 <i>s.</i>
Lancaster	6	I	Carrying milk ...	14	6 <i>d.</i>
"	6	I	Delivers milk ...	28	2 <i>s.</i>
"	6	I	Sells firewood ...	5 nights	Not stated
"	6	I	Sells flowers ...	1 night	1 <i>d.</i>
"	6	I	Papers ...	17	7 <i>d.</i>
Leicester ...	6	O	Turning hose ...	20	6 <i>d.</i> for bank account
London ...	6	O	Selling newspapers	About 12	1 <i>s.</i>
" ...	6	O	" "	"	1 <i>s.</i>
" ...	6	O	" "	"	1 <i>s.</i>
Middlesex	6	—	Carrying coal and sweeping up stables	13 <i>½</i>	2 <i>l.</i> <i>d.</i>
Norfolk ...	6	I	Stone-picking ...	8	6 <i>d.</i>
Northum-berland	6	I	Paper boy ...	12	6 <i>d.</i>
"	6	—	Stone-breaking in the quarries ...	9	9 <i>d.</i>
"	6	I	Newsboy ...	15	6 <i>d.</i>
York "	6	O	Brickmaking ...	24	3 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>

And here are the cases of three boys which will give a good idea of how this out-of-school employment presses on the individual child :—

Name.	Employed.	A.M.	Hrs.	P.M.	Hrs.	Wages.
L. S., 12 yrs. 6 mo., Stand.	Monday ...	5.30 to 8.30.	3	5 to 5.30	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 <i>s.</i> per week and
VII., Milk Boy.	Tuesday ...	do.	3	do.	$\frac{1}{2}$	breakfast
	Wednesday	do.	3	do.	$\frac{1}{2}$	on
	Thursday	do.	3	do.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Sunday.
	Friday ...	do.	3	do.	$\frac{1}{2}$	
	Saturday	do.	3	1 to 4.30	3 <i>½</i>	
	,	9 to 12	3	5 to 6.30	1 <i>½</i>	
	Sunday ...	6 to 2.30 P.M.	8 <i>½</i>	
				29 <i>½</i>	7 <i>½</i>	Total, 37 hours.

Name.	Employed.	A.M.	Hrs.	P.M.	Hrs.	Wages.
W.S., 12 yrs. 9 mo., Stand.	Monday...	5 to 10	5	Tea each evening,
V., Hair-dresser's Boy.	Tuesday...	do.	5	all meals on Saturday, and 3s.
	W'dn'sd'y	do.	5	per week.
	Thursday	do.	5	
	Friday	do.	5	
	Saturday	9 to 12	3	1 to 11	10	
	Sunday ..	8.30 to 2 P.M.	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	
			8 $\frac{1}{2}$		35	Total, 43 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

W.P., 12 yrs. 8 mo., Stand.	Monday..	6 to 8	2	5 to 8	3	3s. per week and
V., Paper Boy.	Tuesday...	do.	2	do.	3	breakfast on Sundays.
	W'dn'sd'y	do.	2	do.	3	
	Thursday	do.	2	do.	3	
	Friday ...	do.	2	do.	3	
	Saturday	6 to 9	3	1 to 7	6	
	"	9.30 to 12	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	Sunday ...	7 to 11	4	
			19 $\frac{1}{2}$		21	Total, 40 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

There is nothing sadder in our social life than much of this premature employment of little children. One hears much of parental rights and privileges, of the rights of the State and of the Church, but not a voice is raised on behalf of the rights of children. The State and the Church united call down the blessings of Heaven on the father. All nations sing the praise of the father of many. In old times it was perhaps justified, and even to-day, from the national point of view, it is in the big family that the men of to-morrow are found.

"In the case of a family consisting of one or two children, the excessive tenderness of the parents, their perpetual fears of misfortune happening to their offspring, and the manner in which the latter are frequently indulged, have the effect of depriving the male children of any spirit of boldness and enterprise, and of any power of endurance. From this evil France is suffering at the present day."—P. Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Economiste français*, quoted by Kidd, *ibid.*, Appendix IV.

But consider what big families entail. In the lower ranks of life they mean constant poverty, hunger, and struggle.

They mean, too, the sacrifice of childhood. The State cannot have it both ways. It cannot join in acclaiming the father of the big family, and at the same time condemn him for utilising the services of his children to maintain the family.

There is a good deal of sentiment introduced into this discussion. The healthy child often enjoys some out-of-school work, and it serves as an excellent introduction to life—an introduction which the school altogether fails to give. So much depends upon the nature and quantity of the employment; indoor work, factory labour, or sedentary employment of any kind is certainly harmful to a vigorous childhood; on the other hand, the life of the farm and the cottage gives many opportunities for the pleasurable and useful employment of children.

The Teaching Staff.—The teaching staff of the English elementary school is made up of four classes:—

1. *Certificated Teachers.*—These hold the full qualification of the Board of Education for elementary teachers. The certificate is for life, and entitles the holder to a pension at sixty-five years of age. As a rule, only certificated teachers are qualified to act as head teachers of a school. The exception made is where the average attendance of the school is under fifty, and the Government inspector recommends an assistant teacher as specially qualified.

2. *Assistant Teachers.*—These are teachers who have passed the King's Scholarship Examination, but have not had the advantages of a normal school training. This examination is held by the Government for the selection of candidates for training colleges. The successful candidates at this examination become immediately qualified as assistant teachers.

3. *Additional Teachers.*—These teachers have no academic or professional qualification whatsoever. They are young women over eighteen years of age, approved by the Government inspector without examination, and popularly known as "Art. 68." They form one of the weakest spots in the English educational system.

4. *Pupil Teachers.*—These are young apprentices of from fifteen to eighteen years of age, engaged by the managers on condition of teaching under the superintendence of the head teacher and of receiving suitable instruction during their engagement.

The great majority of English primary teachers commence as pupil teachers. At the completion of their apprenticeship

they sit at the King's Scholarship Examination. Those who pass in the first or second class are eligible to proceed to the training college, but as the examination is competitive, and the training college accommodation in England very inadequate, only about forty-seven per cent. of those qualified can actually enter the training colleges. All who pass the King's Scholarship Examination, whether in first, second, or third class, become qualified as assistant teachers.

These may proceed further to the Certificate examination, and so become fully qualified elementary teachers without having actually passed through a training college course. Hence the certificated teachers are divided into *trained* and *untrained* teachers. Fifty-eight per cent. only of English certificated teachers have been trained for two years. The central authority does not recognise any distinction between the two classes of certificated teachers.

The comparatively large proportion of untrained certificated teachers in England is mainly due to—

1. The cost to the student of the training-college course.
2. The inadequate amount of training-college accommodation.
3. The fact that most of the training-college accommodation is in denominational hands.

Although so large a proportion of the staff of the English school consists of unqualified or only partially qualified teachers, a perusal of the following statistics will show that a gratifying and steady improvement has taken place in this respect :—

	Men and Boys.	Women and Girls.	Total, 1900.	Total, 1899.	Total, 1898.	Total, 1897.	Total, 1896.
Certificated Ex-pupil teachers ...	24,557	39,481	64,038	62,085	59,874	58,814	56,712
“Article 68’s”	5,121	27,315	32,436	30,233	26,736	25,200	25,303
Pupil teachers and candidates	17,512	17,512	35,024	30,717	15,130	14,155	12,838
Total ...	7,550	31,309	38,859	41,480	42,380	43,574	43,800
Total ...	37,228	115,617	152,845	150,524	141,135	141,749	138,743

The total number of teachers has increased enormously since 1870.

1900	152,845
1899	150,524
1898	144,135
1897	141,749
1896	138,743
1895	133,723
1894	126,546
1893	121,871
1892	117,155
1870	20,033

And this increase is mainly in adult teachers, as the numbers following show :—

Year.	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Number.	Percentage.	Number.	Percentage.
1900	113,986	74.6	38,859	25.4
1899	109,035	72.4	41,489	27.6
1898	101,746	70.5	42,389	29.2
1897	98,175	69.2	43,574	30.8
1896	94,943	68.4	43,800	31.6
1895	92,580	69.2	41,143	30.8
1894	86,952	68.7	39,504	31.3
1893	82,997	68.1	38,874	31.9

Unfortunately this increase of adult teachers is taking place in the ranks of the non-certificated as well as in the ranks of the certificated teacher :—

—	Certificated Adults.	Percentage.	Uncertificated Adults.	Percentage.	Apprentices.	Percentage.
1900...	64,038	41.9	49,948	32.7	38,859	25.4
1899...	62,085	41.2	46,950	31.2	41,489	27.0
1898...	59,874	41.5	41,872	29.1	42,389	29.2
1897...	58,814	41.5	39,361	27.7	43,574	30.8
1896...	56,712	40.8	38,231	27.5	43,800	31.7
1895...	52,941	39.6	39,639	29.6	41,143	30.8
1894...	50,639	40.0	36,203	28.7	39,504	31.3
1893...	49,340	40.5	33,057	27.6	38,874	31.9
1892...	48,772	41.6	30,599	26.0	37,874	32.4

There can be no doubt that these figures mean that the pupil-teacher system is slowly disappearing from the English schools, and that at present the deficiency of pupil teachers is being filled by the appointment of adults, it is true, but absolutely unqualified adults. This is a very serious state of affairs, and is recognised as being so by every authority who has considered the subject. It is the employment of these unqualified people under Article 68 that is the despair of all true educators in England to-day. Too often indeed is the school made the dumping-ground of aspiring incompetence. The following table shows what classes of schools resort to this expedient:—

Class of Schools.	Certificated Adults.	Ex-Pupil Teachers.	Article 68's.	Pupil Teachers.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Church Schools ...	38	23	19	20
Wesleyan Schools...	32	27	11	30
Roman Catholic Schools...	36	25	20	19
British Schools ...	38	24	14	24
All Voluntary ...	38	23	18	21
Board Schools ...	51	21	5	23

That the pupil teacher is disappearing is not to be regretted. The system is not even economical, much less efficient. School boards are discovering that it is cheaper to staff their schools with qualified assistant teachers than with pupil teachers; other schools with less funds have to content themselves with unqualified adult teachers. The number of teachers entering the school with no experience has recently been increased by the central authority qualifying young people possessing university or other examination certificates as assistant teachers.

In the more populous districts special schools for the instruction of pupil teachers are now at work. The pupils attend as a rule half-day.

The most significant fact in connection with the staffing of the English school is the revolution in sex of the teacher. In

1869, for every 100 teachers of each class, 48 certificated teachers, 60 assistant teachers, and 57 pupil teachers were females; these proportions increased in 1880 to 58 certificated teachers, 66 assistant teachers, and 68 pupil teachers; and in 1899 to 61 certificated teachers, 84 assistant teachers, and 80 pupil teachers.

Year.	Men and Boys.	Percentage.	Women and Girls.	Percentage.
1900	37,228	24.4	115,617	75.6
1899	37,393	24.8	113,131	75.2
1898	36,448	25.2	107,687	74.8
1897	36,211	25.5	105,538	74.5
1896	35,939	25.9	102,804	74.1
1895	35,095	26.2	98,628	73.8
1894	33,860	26.8	92,686	73.2
1893	33,456	27.0	88,415	72.9

The training colleges for teachers are of two kinds:—
(1) Residential, in which the students are boarded and lodged as well as taught. These are chiefly denominational. (2) Day training colleges. These are attached to a university or university college, and provide instruction only. They are undenominational. Students entering a day training college are, if otherwise capable, able to enjoy some of the benefits of a university training.

The table on next page shows the religious denominations to which the residential training colleges are attached, and the number of students resident in them in 1871 and in the last two years.

All the English residential training colleges are private institutions, but inspected by State officers and maintained almost entirely by State funds. It is unfortunate that the State does not, as in other countries, take over the education of its own teachers. Such work as this should not be entrusted to private bodies. Moreover, many of these institutions are unable to improve their accommodation, as the fountains of charity have dried up. It is generally felt that the education of teachers is not a fair field for private philanthropy.

The Normal colleges of England turn out annually some

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESIDENT IN THE TRAINING COLLEGES.

Designation.	1871.			1899-1900.			1900-1901.		
	No. of T. C.s.	Men.	Total	No. of T. C.s.	Men.	Total	No. of T. C.s.	Men.	Total
Church of England ...	26	780	920	1700	31	1064	1529	2593	31
Undenominational ...	1	24	26	50	2	—	249	249	2
British ...	3	162	124	256	6	201	343	544	6
Wesleyan ...	1	76	60	136	2	120	109	229	2
Roman Catholic ...	2	70	73	143	3	39	212	251	3
Total ...	33	1112	1203	2315	44	1424	2442	3866	44

The following table shows the number of day students undergoing training in the last two years:—

NUMBER OF DAY STUDENTS IN TRAINING.

	1899-1900.			1900-1901.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
In Day Training Colleges 542	... —	542	626	729	1355
In Residential Training Colleges —	... —	—	4	164	168
Total 542	... —	542	1334	630	893
						1523

2,500 teachers, who have received two years' training. This supply would meet the requirements of an army of 42,000 certificated teachers, but as a matter of fact there are 64,038 certificated teachers at work in the schools. "The extent to which the training colleges have contributed to the present supply of efficient teachers in England and Wales is shown by the fact that of 24,557 masters employed in schools reported on last year, 16,941, or 69 per cent., had been trained for two years or over, and 710, or 2.9 per cent., for less than two years, while 6,906, or 28.1 per cent., were not so trained.

"In like manner, of 39,481 schoolmistresses, 18,238, or 46.2 per cent., had been trained for two years or over; 1,079, or 12.7 per cent., for less than two years; and 20,164, or 51.1 per cent., were not trained in colleges. Of the teachers, however, who from whatever cause have not attended a training college, a considerable proportion cannot, except in a technical sense of the word, be classed as *untrained*, as they have passed through the pupil teachers' course under the superintendence of some of the best teachers, and have served as assistants in large schools before passing the examination for a certificate and undertaking independent charges." (*Report of the Committee of Council, 1900-1.*)

Out of 44 residential training colleges, 31 belong to the Established Church, where the students are expected to "conform." This is unfortunate for, and is said to result in a good deal of hardship to, Nonconformists. It has been asserted too that in the primary school the same hardship is felt, for in many parts of rural England the only school available is the school where dogmatic religious teaching is taught. It is true that little is heard of this, but it must be remembered that because it is not heard of it does not follow that it does not exist. As a matter of fact, there are over 8000 parishes in England and Wales where the Church school is the only school available. But as a rule the clergy have used their power with singular moderation, and it is by no means unusual to find Nonconformist teachers in Church schools.

Towards the maintenance of each scholar in the training college the Government makes an annual grant not exceeding £50 for men and £35 for women in residential, and £35 and £30 respectively for each student in a day college. The colleges, moreover, charge each student a fee, and although this fee is small, yet that and the deprivation of salary are

sufficient to stop some of the brightest teachers proceeding to the training college.

The curriculum of these colleges is mainly secondary; generally one foreign language is taught, also science, and sometimes manual training. The professional side of the work is by no means strong. However, it is rapidly improving. A better class of student—better educated and with a wider culture—is reaching the training college from the pupil teacher schools, and as time goes on this will lead to an enrichment of the curriculum and a fuller professional training.

Payment of Teachers.—The average salary of the English certificated master at the present time is £127 per annum, and of the mistress is £85 per annum. In 1870 the respective salaries were £94 and £57. The following tables show very clearly the increase in salary that has taken place during the last quarter of a century:—

Percentage of Certificated Masters who are in Receipt of Salaries of—	1874.		1900.	
	All Certificated Masters.	All Certificated Masters.	Principal Masters only.	
£300 a year and over3	1.9
£200 , ,	3.3	9.5
£150 , ,	12.4	26.0
£100 , ,	48.8	65.2

Percentage of Certificated Mistresses who are in Receipt of Salaries of—	1874.		1900.	
	All Certificated Mistresses.	All Certificated Mistresses.	Principal Mistresses only.	
£200 a year and over0	1.9
£150 , ,4	4.4
£100 , ,	5.5	25.9
£ 75 , ,	23.8	55.7
£ 50 , ,	79.0	96.4

The complete details as to the average salaries earned by the two classes of certificated teachers in the various kinds of schools, are fully set forth in the following tables for the year 1900:—

MASTERS.

Class of School.	Head.		Class.	Total.
	Average Salaries.	Number provided with House or Rent Free.	Average Salaries.	Total Average.
Church Schools connected with National Society or Church of England	£ s. d. 127 12 8	4,324	£ s. d. 83 5 8	£ s. d. 119 11 5
Wesleyan Schools	182 11 4	47	89 18 9	155 5 9
Roman Catholic Schools	128 8 4	24	86 11 7	113 15 1
British and other Schools	152 19 11	222	98 8 8	135 10 2
Board Schools ...	170 10 9	1,511	109 6 6	130 10 4
Total 1900 ...	145 15 3	6,128	104 10 4	127 2 7

MISTRESSES.

Class of School.	Head.		Class.	Total.
	Average Salaries.	Number provided with House or Rent Free.	Average Salaries.	Total Average.
Church Schools connected with National Society or Church of England	£ s. d. 82 7 9	3,272	£ s. d. 58 18 4	£ s. d. 74 16 10
Wesleyan Schools	94 8 4	3	62 13 7	77 16 1
Roman Catholic Schools	75 5 5	266	58 5 2	68 18 10
British and other Schools	88 2 6	133	65 1 2	77 11 4
Board Schools ...	121 19 11	464	83 19 8	94 12 11
Total 1900 ...	95 14 9	4,138	77 1 2	85 9 1

Superannuation of Teachers.—The Act for the pensioning of teachers came into force on 1st April 1899. By this Act every teacher certificated after that date, and any teacher certificated before that date who may wish to do so, will contribute an annual sum of £3 for men, and £2 for women, for every year of service. To this the State adds a sum of 10s. per annum, and at the age of retirement, which is sixty-five, each teacher will be entitled to such an annuity as these sums would purchase. The pension will normally amount to about £64 per annum for men, and £42 per annum for women teachers. Disablement allowances may be given after ten years' service.

The growth of this English system from 1870 to the present time is very remarkable. In 1870 there were 8,281 schools, all voluntary, now there are 20,100; there was accommodation then for 1,878,584 scholars, now there is room for 6,544,092. The children enrolled then constituted 7.66 per cent. of the estimated population, they now constitute 17.7 per cent. The average attendance then was 68.06 per cent. of the number enrolled, the percentage now is 82.06. In 1876 three-fourths of the schools taught their pupils singing by "ear" only, now less than one-seventh do so. In 1876 there were over 200,000 half-timers, in 1900 there were only 89,036. In 1870, of the teachers only 12,467 were certificated, now 64,038 are. In 1870 there were only 1,262 assistant teachers, now there are 32,436; there were then, too, 14,304 pupil teachers, there are now 29,393. In 1891 the number of school banks was 2,629, and of libraries 4,967, now the respective numbers are 7,133 and 8,114. Finally, whereas in 1870 the sum dispensed by the central authority to the schools was £562,611, the annual grant now amounts to ten times as much.

There has been progress in every direction but one, and that is in the increasing number of unqualified teachers who are entering the schools. In 1876 there were only 543 such persons, now there are 17,512.

This summarised statement brings out one fact that is often obscured, and sometimes forgotten, by the more ardent critics of this system. For the last thirty years there has been a slow but constant improvement going on.¹ To-day

¹ Writing of English education, an Australian observed: "Probably in no other country, France not even excepted, has such a change been made

the teachers are better paid, better respected, and better trained ; the schools are better supported, better designed ; the curriculum is wider, richer, more generous ; the children attend more regularly, and on the whole are better trained ; they have a longer and a better school life ; they are better protected against premature employment ; the "half-timer" is becoming extinct, the age of exemption has been slowly raised, and the general atmosphere of the school has become more sympathetic. Many of our schools, too, are beautiful temples of youth, where children may for a few hours each day see beauty and feel sympathy. These buildings are magnificent monuments of public faith and wisdom. No community can erect to itself a more enduring memorial of its faith than a public school. Children's right to childhood is recognised even in the school. The dead hand no longer crushes childhood out of life. Payment by results, examinations, rigidity of classification, have disappeared ; and, as time goes on, even the numerous traces they have left behind will disappear. There is much that is mechanical, much that is routine, much that is of the past still left in the school, yet to those who have eyes the signs are clear. The fetters that bound our children, our schools, and our teachers have been broken. The school life of a child in England to-day is very much happier and brighter than it was thirty years ago. All this is to the good, but the movement is too slow for some bright spirits. Educational reformers—like all reformers—are people in a hurry. Democracy, however, is slow—terribly slow. There is

in the education of the mass of the people during the last twenty years. At the present time the English people are better provided with elementary schools than their cousins in America ; and no group of American States can be taken, containing an equal population, where such a large majority of the whole school population, say from six to thirteen, are attending school and receiving the rudiments of knowledge. Every child is provided with the means of instruction, and compelled to attend." (Grasby, *Teaching in Three Continents*, p. 25.) And Dr. Sharpless, the President of Haverford College, affirmed in 1892: "There have been great advances since 1870. A comprehensive public elementary school system which ranks high in efficiency and spirit has been established, the secondary schools have been reorganised, the abuse of the old endowments practically stopped, and the universities brought into much more intimate touch with the life of the nation. In no country has there been a more radical improvement in any score of years; while wise legislation, rigidly enforced, has held all that has been gained." (*English Education*, Preface.)

no purely negative force in the world so powerful as the inertia of democracy.

Every reform in the English school has been effected by the persistent efforts of a few keen intellects working on this inorganic mass of English democracy. It is not so much an active opposition as this dead force of inertia that has to be overcome. The growth of the system has illustrated the action and reaction that take place between the social and individual units in English society. We see the pull of the community on the individual followed by the pull of the individual on the community. Only when the individual fails does the community, most unwillingly, come to his assistance. Even when thus helped, the rights of the individual and local community are not sacrificed. Local government is still supreme in the land of its birth. Local interests and individual rights are characteristics of this system of education, which mark it off sharply from the continental systems.¹ The control of the State over the primary school has only been tolerated in England, and the whole tendency of modern reform, educational and social, is to return to the local communities the powers of control and government which the central authorities had gradually been acquiring.

In such a system as this, reform is slow—but sure. All that is needed in such a state to bring about reform in the school is to educate public opinion up to that reform. But that is a great task, needing the caustic, volcanic eloquence of a Carlyle, the rhythmic cadence of a Ruskin, or the persuasive power, keen sympathy, and generous humour of a Dickens. This system is very close to the national life. There is but little of the professional detachment of the continental school seen in England.

In all these respects the system is characteristic of the people. To quarrel with it is to quarrel with the national character. In its lack of unity, its diversity, its tendency to compromise, its respect for vested interests, its remarkable variations of efficiency, it is English. To Germanise the English school, it would be necessary to Teutonise the Saxon.

¹ Cf. Max Leclerc, *Les professions en Angleterre*, pp. 292-93.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GERMANY.

A PHILOSOPHICAL writer has observed that "among the continental schools in Europe there seem to be, to the careful observer, two trends noticeable, one the Germanic, the other the Romanic. The former insists upon thorough discipline of mind and body, and the fostering of a deep religious and moral sense ; and in order to facilitate this, the following are considered necessary :—

1. Consideration for the feelings of all citizens in religious matters.
2. Local government, including regulation of religious instruction (subject to the protection of minorities).
3. Direct local taxation, expenditure, and administrative details.
4. Religion, subject to certain conscience-clause provisions, considered the basis of instruction.
5. Compulsory attendance.
6. Thorough qualification of all teachers for private as well as for public schools.
7. Recognition of the importance of gymnastic exercises.

"The special features of the Romanic trend are :—

1. The natural eager intention to render the system as perfect as possible.
2. In pursuance of that intention, munificent expenditure upon public instruction is made.
3. The absence of any religious instruction is a marked characteristic, but the system endeavours to be absolutely neutral in, and not hostile to, religion.
4. Special attention is paid to industrial training.
5. The organisation of infant schools is very complete.
6. The State far more absolutely than elsewhere controls the complete education of the people." (*C.R.*, 1888-89, p. 167.)

The German school system has long been the admiration of the pedagogic world. Its efficiency, combined with economy, has compelled the admiration of all. It is not the poor schoolhouse, but the admirable teaching in it that commands attention. The perfect adaptation of means to ends in Prussia is remarkable. What the visitor is impressed by in Germany is the fact that the whole nation is at school, so to speak. "Churches have their reserved seats for school-children, theatres offer classical performances for students, gardens and parks are open for children, gymnastic halls and apparatus are provided for the use of pupils of the city schools—in fine, all efforts are made to put public instruction upon a national basis and to make the desire for education contagious" (*C.R.*, 1888-89, p. 165). It may be added that railway and steamship companies are required to offer special terms for school children when accompanied by their teachers, and in the summer months it is quite common for one to meet, both in Germany and Switzerland, whole schools engaged in prolonged travelling excursions with their teachers.

There is no general educational law in Prussia, but the various regulations of the central authority in Berlin, issued from time to time, have acquired all the force of such a general law.

Education in Prussia is in the hands of the Minister of Ecclesiastical, Educational, and Medical Affairs. He is a member of the Cabinet, and is responsible to the king for all educational matters. He is in office during the king's pleasure. The kingdom of Prussia is divided into thirteen provinces, having a population in each of from one to four million people. Each province has at the head of its administration a president, who is assisted by a cabinet of councillors, and each of these is the head of some one or other branch of the provincial administration—*e.g.*, the judicial office, the education office, etc.

The councillor at the head of the provincial education department is the provincial school councillor, and he is the official intermediary between the central and local authorities in Prussian education. The members of the provincial school board are appointed by the Minister of Education and confirmed by the king. It has general oversight of all the schools of the province, but its special

duties are concerned with the care of the higher systems of education.

Further, each province is divided into "governments" (*Regierungen*), of which there are thirty-six. Each has a school board consisting of six officers, two appointed by the king and four by the provincial education department. These boards are appointed for six years, and their main duty is the supervision of the primary schools and the training and appointment of teachers.

Further, each of these "governments" is subdivided into districts (*Kreise*). The district school commissions are also appointed for six years, and are intended to represent the various interests of the primary school. They have complete control over public and private primary schools, and their executive powers are vested in 298 district inspectors and 925 "local" inspectors.

The *Kreise* may be urban or rural. The head of the city administration is the mayor, or burgomaster, who is a paid official, and whose appointment must be approved by the king. The head of the rural *Kreis* is the *Landrath*. In cities a sub-committee of three or five members of the city council act as the local school board, whilst in villages and towns three or five leading citizens are nominated to act as the local board. Those secondary schools which are not pure Government schools have a board of management (*Curatorium*), selected jointly by the royal government, the city council, and any other interested bodies, such as trustees of funds, etc. The royal secondary schools are managed directly by the Government officials.

The drawing up and prescribing of courses of study, as well as the certification of all teachers, are retained entirely in its own hands by the State.

State inspection of primary schools is very irregular, as the teacher is so thoroughly well trained that frequent inspections are considered unnecessary. The State reserves to itself the power of a court of appeal in all cases of dispute between teachers and local managers. The actual local management is in the hands of the mayor or the priest. The power of the clergy, indeed, over the school is so great as to be one of the most serious grievances of the German teacher. The teacher complains of their unsympathetic attitude, their power of writing unfair and private reports to Government officials,

thereby seriously prejudicing his chance of promotion, and their abuse of their position for furthering the interests of the Church—favouring teachers who are good churchgoers, fatiguing the children with early church services before morning school, etc.

Many Prussian school inspectors are also heads of training colleges or secondary schools, and devote only a portion of their time to inspection. Inspectors' reports are never published in Prussia, but on inquiry may be perused in the inspectors' office.

We have taken the Prussian as the typical system of Germany, and in so doing are following innumerable precedents.

All German primary schools are denominational, but the greater part of the religion taught is non-sectarian and there is the right of withdrawal; there are a small number of little schools, called "Simultanenschulen," where children of mixed creeds are taught together, but as a rule each faith has its own school. In some towns, such as Crefeld and Cologne, these two separate schools, Catholic and Protestant, exist under the same roof and use the same play-ground, etc. Nevertheless, the two schools are perfectly independent of each other, with separate teachers and text-books, and with separate local managers.

The fact that the majority of German Protestants belong to the orthodox Lutheran Church makes the system tolerable, though it is undoubtedly a grievance to Free Churchmen and Agnostics.

The number of private elementary schools in Prussia is very small.

In 1886 they were 248

1891 " 495

1896 " 404

The teachers of these private schools, like those of the public schools, must possess a Government diploma.

Of the public elementary schools of Prussia in 1896 there were—

Protestant	67.76 per cent.
Catholic	29.68 "
Jewish	0.68 "
Mixed	1.88 "

The actual number of schools was—

Year.	Protestant.	Catholic.	Jewish.	Mixed.
1886	23,122	10,061	318
1891	23,749	10,154	244
1896	24,487	10,725	246

Another interesting classification of Prussian schools shows their distribution between town and country :—

Year.	Number of Schools in Cities.	Number of Schools in Country.	Total.
1886	3,718	30,298
1891	3,871	30,871
1896	4,242	31,896

One of the best indications of the relative efficiency and popularity of a system of national education is the number of children enrolled in the public schools. In Prussia, in 1896, although 4.06 per cent. of children of school age were in attendance at secondary schools, yet as large a proportion as 94.51 per cent. of all children attending schools were enrolled in the primary public school ; and this percentage has been increasing :—

In 1886 it was 93.44 per cent.

1891 " 93.90 "

1896 " 94.51 "

School Laws.—Children under thirteen years of age cannot be employed in factories, and even those over thirteen only providing they have complied with certain school requirements. The age of compulsory attendance at school in Prussia is from six to thirteen in the country, and six to fourteen in the town. That is the law ; but, as we shall see later on, certain exceptions are made in cases of extreme poverty, etc., and as a rule the law is less stringently applied in the case of girls than of boys. It has been in vogue so long, and has been so con-

sistently enforced, that the habit of regular attendance has become automatic.

"The general workings of the compulsory law are as follow:—

1. Careful record of all births is kept, so that the age of each child in the parish is known.

2. It is the duty of the police, who take the census, to furnish the school board with a complete list of all children who have become of school age, as well as any that may have moved into the school district. This must be done twice a year before the opening of each session. The two school sessions begin after Easter in the spring, and after Michaelmas Day in the autumn, at which times children are admitted to the school. In many places, especially in the country, they are admitted at Easter only.

3. The school board furnishes the teacher or principal with the above list, so that he knows exactly how many pupils to expect at the opening of the school. He also knows what class a pupil who has come from another school will enter. Thus any necessary preparation for the accommodation and instruction of the pupils can be made beforehand.

4. Should any child not appear, or should one be absent any school-day during the year, without previous excuse from the parent, the matter is referred at once to the police, whose duty it is to look the case up immediately, and give the parent personal warning, if there is not good excuse for absence.

5. The parent is held accountable for the attendance of his children. If, after warning, he still neglects to keep his child at school, he is subject to a fine, which is increased upon continued neglect. If the child is incorrigible, and the parent unable to control him, he is sent to a reform school." (Seeley, *German School System*, p. 72.)

Illness is the only excuse accepted for absence, and an immediate notification of this is sent by the parent to the teacher.

I have sometimes noticed that form monitors are used in the Prussian school, and that one of their duties is to ascertain for the teacher the cause of any sudden absence.

In Berlin this work of ascertaining the causes of absence is performed by a committee of citizens, instead of by the police; but the results are not such as to encourage an extension of the system.

School Finance.—The State support of the Prussian elementary school varies considerably. In some districts the State entirely maintains the schools, in others it merely pays a fraction of the teacher's salary. Generally speaking, the richer the community the less help it gets from the State. Curiously unlike the English system is this.

The cities, for example, receive help from the State towards the maintenance of their schools up to about one-third the total amount required, the rest they find themselves. On the other hand, the average country school receives practically two-thirds of its total income from the State, and only raises one-sixth of the amount from local taxes. Again, in the eastern provinces of Prussia, the State pays much more for rural than for urban schools ; yet, in the western provinces, the State's help to the rural school is insignificant. The hold of the State on the school and the teacher suffers no relaxation, even when the State contribution is nil. The total amount spent on primary education in Prussia was in—

Year.	In Towns.	In the Country.	Total.
1886	£2,389,528	£3,117,413	£5,506,941
1891	2,874,690	3,885,635	6,760,325
1896	3,958,966	4,892,704	8,851,670

The State's proportion of the total amount annually devoted to primary education is about 40 per cent. A large contribution is also given by the State treasury towards the cost of maintenance of the lower secondary, technical, and industrial schools, whilst to the Gymnasium the State contributes the main portion of the whole cost. The entire cost of the Universities and the Polytechnics is borne by the State. It should be mentioned that the Prussian State has at its disposal an annual sum of £350,000, the result of the confiscation of Church property.

The many sources of income of the Prussian elementary school are shown in the following table :—

SOURCES OF INCOME.

—	In Towns.	In the Country.
Received from—		
State's Contribution	Per Cent. 16.05	Per Cent. 38.99
Local Taxation	69.25	42.85
Permanent Funds	0.94	6.72
State and Communities combined ...	1.27	1.67
State, Communities, and Funds combined	12.49	9.77

Here is the amount in decimals of a pound of the school expenditure per head of the population :—

Year.	Town.	Country.
1861	£0.10	£0.07
1866	0.11	0.07
1871	0.17	0.09
1886	0.23	0.18
1891	0.26	0.21
1896	0.31	0.26

The amount spent per annum on the education of each child in the Prussian elementary school was (in marks or shillings)—

—	1861.	1871.	1878.	1880.	1891.
In Towns	14.64	22.10	33.67	33.59	39.99
In the Country	8.80	10.72	18.40	19.79	24.73
In General	10.37	13.97	23.10	24.07	29.74

This amount, of course, varies very considerably for different provinces. In 1896 the amount spent on each pupil in the various provinces was as follows :—

EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL ENROLLED
(in marks or shillings).

—		In Towns.	In the Country.	Total.
East Prussia	...	36.12	24.28	26.36
West Prussia	...	35.32	25.32	27.52
Berlin	...	64.00	—	64.00
Brandenburg	...	42.36	32.00	34.20
Pomerania	...	44.84	26.84	32.04
Posen	...	33.76	25.80	27.80
Silesia	...	39.44	21.76	26.36
Saxony	...	39.92	28.08	32.76
Schleswig-Holstein	...	47.56	43.68	44.68
Hanover	...	50.44	30.40	36.12
Westphalia	...	41.12	31.52	34.72
Hesse-Nassau	...	62.36	29.96	39.44
Rhenish Prussia	...	42.76	30.12	35.52
Hohenzollern	...	37.72	35.84	36.00
 Total		 44.64	 28.20	 33.60

School Buildings.—The most remarkable fact in connection with the subject of school premises in Germany is the strenuous effort that is being made to bring the accommodation up to the requirements. The majority of town schools are new. The town population of Germany has grown as fast if not faster than any other population in the world—e.g., the cities of Berlin and Magdeburg have grown even faster than Chicago, and to meet this extraordinary growth a sustained effort has been made by the authorities. Nevertheless, the buildings do not keep pace with the growth of population. Thus—

Year.		Number of Class-rooms.	Number of Classes.
1886	...	64,688	75,097
1891	...	70,950	82,746
1896	...	78,431	92,001

Two million pounds sterling were expended in 1886-87 for the erection and improvement of buildings for elementary schools. That the majority of town schools are new may be gathered from these figures following:—

From 1874 up to 1882, 5,975 new buildings were erected, and 2,710 buildings were enlarged, at a total cost of £5,875,000. From the year 1883 up to 1886, 3,977 new buildings were erected, and 3,975 buildings were enlarged. These together cost £5,200,000. Of these amounts the State provided 13 per cent. and the local communities 87 per cent.

On new school buildings alone there was spent in—

1886	£896,646
1891	£1,038,169
1896	£1,552,159

These amounts were devoted to—

	1886.	1891.	1896
New school-houses	—	3,266
Containing class-rooms	5,948	7,368	6,435
Containing teachers' dwellings	2,833	3,786	3,086

That there are many poor and insanitary school buildings in Prussia is well known, but they are gradually disappearing; and in the more prosperous provinces to-day, even the country schools are, on the whole, well housed. These small country schools are built in two storeys, the upper one being the master's house. The premises are generally in good repair and beautifully clean. A very pleasant, homely atmosphere pervades them. No lavatory is provided other than the pump in the playground, and the cloak-room accommodation is generally confined to a series of pegs in the corridor or classroom. The ventilation is none too satisfactory, as no extractors or Tobin's tubes appear to be provided. The playground is covered with gravel and planted with trees. A few simple gymnastic apparatus are generally to be seen in the playground.

The newer urban schools of Germany are very fine examples of school architecture, and the cost per place often reaches a high figure (e.g., £20). These schools are built of red and white

sandstone, with granite steps and a fine façade. As a rule they are built four storeys high, and with the class-rooms all facing the north. The floor of these class-rooms is of wooden blocks. The accommodation is for from 1,200 to 1,600 children. In the basement there may be a set of shower-baths for washing the children weekly. The school has no central hall, but the Turn-halle or gymnasium is used for assembly, and is very well fitted for gymnastic exercises. The walls of the class-room are very bare, only pictures of the three Emperors relieving the monotony.¹ The corridors are tiled, and have recesses for hats and cloaks. Here and there are umbrella-stands. Along the corridor also are placed drinking-fountains, but no lavatory accommodation appears to be provided. On the south side of the building are what we may call subsidiary rooms, such as the head and assistant teachers' rooms, the museum, library, and a room for periodically weighing and measuring the children. German school authorities nowadays endeavour to provide suitable seats for the pupils.

In Berlin great improvements have taken place in recent years. The older buildings contained ten to twelve class-rooms, together with a dwelling for the principal and janitor. These old buildings have no assembly hall, no conference room, gymnasium, nor laboratories. They are heated by stoves. Most of the older class-rooms strike a visitor as being crowded, as only six square feet are allowed each child.

The newer Berlin schools are heated by hot water or air, the former by choice. They are built in four storeys, with fine wide staircases. The corridors are wide and well lighted, and on each storey on the one side of the corridor extends a long assembly hall. The class-rooms are thirty feet by twenty feet, and are for the accommodation of seventy children. Special cloak-rooms are provided. In the basement is a large room specially fitted up with tools for the use of school children out of school hours, so that they need not wander about the streets of the city until their parents return home from the factory.

¹ "I believe," writes Ruskin, "the notion of fixing the attention by keeping the room empty is a wholly mistaken one. I think it is just in the empty room that the mind wanders most; for it gets restless, like a bird, for want of a perch, and casts about for any possible means of getting away. And even if it be fixed by an effort on the business in hand, that business becomes itself repulsive, more than it need be, by the vileness of its associations."

The desks provided in the German rural school are distinctly cumbrous, but certainly comfortable, and provided with backs. A few of the modern schools have dual desks. In Berlin schools the desks are generally for three or four children, and of three different sizes in each class-room. Every school in Berlin is provided with a teachers' library, which in the aggregate costs annually £2,570. This sum is divided according to the needs of each school. Every school also receives thirty shillings per year towards buying new books for the pupils' library.

A good collection of physical apparatus and natural history specimens is possessed by each school; and for the botanical lessons, bundles of plants are periodically despatched from the school garden to the teachers.

Two large waggon-loads start daily at six in the morning to distribute the plants among the various schools. Other cities have followed this example. Announcements are made in the daily papers of the day previous of what the cuttings will be, so that the teacher may prepare his lesson. (*C. R.*, 1893-94, p. 245.)

Every Prussian school must possess a copy of each book used in the classes, a globe, maps of the school district, Germany, and Palestine; abacus, thermometer, two blackboards, geometrical models, a daily register, a weekly progress book, a log-book, historical charts, alphabet sheets, a violin, ruler, compasses, a Bible, and a song-book.

In 1896 there were in Germany 1,728 school banks with 227,442 depositors. This was an increase over 1895 of 144 banks and 38,353 depositors. In 1895 the amount deposited was 1,761,972 marks (£88,098), and in 1896 the total deposits reached 4,716,440 marks (£235,822).

Nearly every rural school in Prussia possesses a garden, devoted to the use of the master, where he is able to initiate his pupils into the mysteries of cottage gardening. It is difficult to speak definitely as to how far cottage gardening is taught in the Prussian school, yet it is fairly certain that in many of these rural schools, although formal instruction is not given, yet informally a good deal is done by the teacher in this connection. Many of the city schools possess school gardens, where the janitor grows a considerable variety of plants which are used in the natural history lessons. The school janitor in the large school is generally a very handy man, and I have seen

many pieces of most ingenious scientific apparatus, the product of his skill.

The Curriculum.—There is a remarkable uniformity in the curricula of the primary schools; indeed, one may say that there is a remarkable uniformity in the schools themselves and everything that appertains to them—teachers, pupils, buildings, organisation, and methods.

The curriculum of the primary school illustrates clearly the philosophical basis that underlies all aspects of German education. This school is deliberately designed for the training of citizens, not craftsmen; hence we shall see that, hitherto, technical subjects have been conspicuous by their absence. A German inspector, Dr. Scherer, of Worms, thus expresses the modern and progressive German's attitude:—"It is necessary to give closer attention to the care of juvenile and national games, to manual training and to reforms in nature study, historical and ethical instruction, and to the introduction of the studies of civics and national and domestic economy. All these branches must be examined, and the dividing line sharply drawn between what belongs to the general education of every pupil in the common schools, and what to a special education and confined to supplementary schools."—*Pädagogischer Jahresbericht*, 1895. (C.R., 1896-97, p. 126.)

The subjects of instruction in the German primary school are:—Religion, German (reading, writing, spelling, and speaking), arithmetic and simpler elements of geometry, drawing, history, geography, elementary science in the form of object-lessons, drill or gymnastics for the boys, needlework for the girls, and singing. The singing for country children is generally by ear only. The components of the curriculum are identical with those required of the English school by the Code of 1900.

The vast majority of German schools rigidly adhere to the above curriculum. In the large towns, however, and in certain districts, we find modern demands compelling a widening of it. Before proceeding to deal with these special curricula, we will give two analyses of school time-tables, one embodying the general regulations for all schools as issued by the Minister in 1872, and the other that of the communal schools of the city of Berlin:—

			Lower Grade.	Middle Grade.	Upper Grade.
Religion	4	4	4
Language	11	8	8
Arithmetic	4	4	4
Geometry	—	—	2
History, Geography, and Nature Study			—	6	6-8
Singing	1	2	2
Gymnastics	2 [o]	2 [o]	2 [o]
Drawing	—	2	2
Female Handiwork	[2]	[2]	[2]
Totals	22	28	30-32

Where there is but one number in a column the statement applies to both sexes. If the number refers only to boys, a cipher is added in brackets. The numbers referring to girls only are enclosed in brackets.

COMMUNAL SCHOOLS IN BERLIN.

		Grades or Classes.					
		VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion	4	4	4	4	4	4
Language	11	9	10 [8]	8	8 [6]	8 [6]
Arithmetic	4	4	4	4	4	4
Geometry	—	—	—	2 [o]	2 [o]	3 [o]
History	—	—	—	2	2	2
Geography	—	—	2	2	2	2
Nature Study	—	—	2 [o]	2	2	3 [2]
Singing	1	1	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing	—	2	2	2	2	2
Female Handiwork		—	—	[4]	[4]	[6]	[6]
Totals	22	22	28	30 [32]	30 [32]	32

The attitude of the German government, and teachers too, towards proposed additions to these curricula is one of unreserved suspicion. Dr. Bosse, the late Minister of Education, has thus expressed himself:—"Even though I fully recognise the educational value of such efforts as are manifested in manual training and domestic science, and which are directed to excite and develop the mind and aptitude of youth for practical pursuits, and though I am willing, and ready, to promote the establishment for that purpose of appropriations in keeping with available funds, I must nevertheless insist upon it, that the people's schools suffer no loss, and apply their entire time in enabling youth to acquire, on the basis of valuable knowledge, the moral and religious education which the success of their later practical occupations demands."

Only in a few town schools have special subjects found their way into the curriculum. No school in the city of Cologne finds place for manual training in its time-table. It is, however, taught on *free* afternoons to those who care to come, just as at Mannheim the girls are taught cookery, and the boys manual training, on their half-holidays. Cooking schools have been commenced in Berlin, but the attendance is optional. The girls who attend are, however, excused two hours' needlework per week. At Hagen, in Westphalia, the town provides manual training for its boys outside school hours. At Munich, a private society has commenced a school in housewifery and cookery.

Domestic economy has been introduced into the curriculum of the schools of Berlin, Cassel, Hanau, Wiesbaden, Halle, Altona, Goldberg, Dortmund, Posen, Königsberg, etc.

In the Hamburg city schools for boys, English is taught for five hours per week in the three upper classes.

Gymnastics are taught to girls in all town schools, but not in country schools. (*C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 417.)

It is interesting to contrast the tardy acceptance of new ideas on the part of the German teacher with the morbid craving for new ideas of the unprofessional teacher in other parts of the world. There can be no doubt that the natural attitude of the highly trained teacher towards such ideas is one of cautious suspicion, and that such an attitude is a safe one for the community.

The product of this system of training in the city of Berlin is expected to be able to "read fluently and with

good emphasis, write orthographically, distinguish between High German and provincial idiom,¹ know the etymology of his language, and be able to analyse a sentence. He must be able to repeat in writing a brief narrative, or give a description and know something of the work and lives of poets, such as Gellert, Goethe, Schiller, Arndt, Uhland, Chamisso ; he must know some of their poems. In arithmetic he must be able to operate with decimals and common fractions, solve problems by the rule of three, and understand the customary business rules. In geometry, he must be able to prove the axioms of the congruence of triangles and angles within a circle, to compare planes bounded by straight lines, and have had practice in simple construction. Some characteristic forms of plants and animals, as well as the most familiar minerals, elementary observations of nature, and experiments with the most common physical apparatus are the limits for nature studies. The pupil must know the geography of Europe and a little of all the other continents, but thoroughly the physical and political geography of Germany. He must know the important dates and personages of German history." (C.R., 1893-94, p. 281.)

In discussing the organisation of the Prussian school, it is important to remember that it is the class, not the school, that is the unit of school administration. The ideal is one teacher for each class. We shall see how the actual falls short of this ideal. The small country school is termed a one-class school, and the single teacher generally subdivides his little class or school into three sections of (1) children between six and eight years of age, (2) children between eight and eleven years of age, and (3) children above eleven years of age. To assist him in working these three sections simultaneously, he often resorts to monitors. These monitors, as a rule, ultimately develop into primary teachers. The pupil-teacher system of England has its admirers amongst those pedagogues of Germany who are practically acquainted with the problems of the rural school.

Schools are classified according as they are one-class, three-

¹ Throughout Prussia great trouble is taken to produce clear, natural vocalisation of sounds, as well as to eliminate local peculiarities of dialect. Very few schools in the world have so difficult a task in this direction as the German school, and I have been surprised at the patience and skill with which the German teacher endeavours to cultivate good German.

class, five, six, or eight-class schools.¹ The tendency is for the town schools to develop into six-class schools, as the eight-class school, prevalent in the district of Düsseldorf, has not proved altogether satisfactory.

The normal size of a class in Prussia is fixed at 70 for the urban class and teacher, and 80 for the rural class and teacher. When these conditions are met, the organisation is considered satisfactory. It is when these conditions are not met that the class becomes technically overcrowded.

Co-education is not popular in Germany—only tolerated.

NUMBER OF PRUSSIAN CLASSES.

—	1886.	1891.	1896.
Total Number of Classes	75,097	82,746	92,001
Separate Classes for Boys	10,096	12,168	14,422
" Girls	10,297	12,281	14,552
Mixed Classes	54,704	58,297	63,027

¹ CLASSIFICATION OF PRUSSIAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

	1886.	1891.	1896.
a. Ungraded schools	17,744	16,600	15,892
With school children	1,146,701	969,598	886,864
b. Schools of two classes	8,845	9,474	10,181
With school children	1,078,459	1,047,507	1,061,716
Of these were half-day schools	5,409	5,878	6,817
With school children	571,474	568,235	621,820
c. Schools of three classes	3,949	4,447	4,930
With school children	833,013	850,383	889,703
d. Schools of four classes	1,352	1,553	1,709
With school children	449,744	476,403	489,900
e. Schools of five classes	649	692	863
With school children	285,282	274,412	320,166
f. Schools of six classes	1,187	1,551	1,830
With school children	829,823	994,952	1,102,642
g. Schools of seven or more classes	209	425	733
With school children	215,225	303,221	485,835

It is now necessary to say something of the actual school accommodation provided in Prussia.

The authorities themselves realise fully the serious state of affairs. Said the Prussian Minister of Education: "Life and health of both teacher and pupil are endangered by such conditions." He begged the Diet for some millions to build more schools, but was refused. In the Diet again he affirmed: "It is true it was worse in former times, but Prussia then was justly called the land of schools, for it stood at the head. To-day, however, we are behind countries whose schools are very much younger than ours—for instance, France, where every forty to fifty children have a teacher." What is this serious condition of things? Well, it is the fearful understaffing and overcrowding that exist in a very large number of Prussian class-rooms. In 1891 it was reported that as many as 1,309,175 children were taught in classes numbering between 81 and 100 in the country, and 71 to 90 in the town school; that, again, 324,821 children were taught in classes of between 101 and 150 in the country, and between 91 and 120 in the town school; and finally, that 27,186 children were gathered together for instruction in classes exceeding 150 or 120 respectively.

In 1886 there were in Prussia 25,535 "overcrowded" classes, with 2,333,373 pupils; in 1896 the number of such classes was 17,165, with 1,390,525 pupils.

The actual deficiency of class-rooms for the whole of Prussia is shown by the following figures for the last three censuses:—

Year.		Number of Class-rooms.	Number of Classes.
1886	...	64,688	75,097
1891	...	79,950	82,746
1896	...	78,431	92,001

The lack of accommodation is confined almost entirely to the rural districts. In 1896 the deficiency for urban districts was less than 1000 out of a total of 30,000 classes; in the rural

districts, on the other hand, for every 150 classes only about 100 class-rooms are available. The result, of course, is the general adoption throughout large parts of rural Germany of the half-day school.

The understaffing is equally serious. In 1886 there were 64,750 teachers for 75,097 classes; in 1896 there were 79,431 teachers for 92,001 classes; so that the deficiency of teaching power, which in 1886 was 10,347, had increased to 12,570 in 1896. The following table shows the condition of each province in this respect in 1896:—

Province.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Classes.	Classes without Teachers of their own.
East Prussia ...	5,066	5,428	- 362
West Prussia ...	3,729	4,362	- 633
Berlin ...	3,587	3,583	+ 4
Brandenburg ...	6,686	8,108	- 1,422
Pomerania ...	4,389	5,011	- 622
Posen ...	4,196	5,786	- 1,590
Silesia ...	10,105	13,548	- 3,443
Saxony ...	6,832	7,869	- 1,037
Schleswig-Holstein	3,926	3,945	- 19
Hanover ...	6,424	7,379	- 955
Westphalia ...	6,724	7,710	- 986
Hesse-Nassau	4,411	5,285	- 874
Rhenish Prussia ...	13,158	13,788	- 630
Hohenzollern...	198	199	- 1
Totals ...	79,431	92,001	—

In Münster seven-ninths of all the school children were taught in classes of above 70 or 80 children. This district, it is interesting to observe, levies the minimum school rate and spends less per head upon its children's training than any other district in Prussia.

Some remarkable cases of excessive overcrowding occur, chiefly in the eastern provinces, for the poverty of the community compels an unfortunate parsimony. These eastern provinces of Prussia, like other poor countries, have the limits of their educational aspirations severely curtailed by the meagre resources of the community, and consequently suffer by comparison with their richer neighbours.

Districts.	Localities.	Classes.	Pupils.
Königsberg ...	Palmnicken	2	293
Gumbinnen ...	Saspe	2	290
Marienwerder ...	Lüben	1	159
Posen ...	Mechlin	1	173
" ...	Nitsche	1	152
" ...	Neustadt	1	144
" ...	Punitz	1	175
Münster ...	Sassenburg	1	152
Düsseldorf ...	Alstaden	1	172
" ...	Odenkerchen	1	141

(See *C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 142.)

Finally, it should be observed that the number of pupils instructed either in whole or half-day sessions by one teacher, was in

1886	1,718,076
1891	1,530,314
1896	1,477,558

It is calculated that to provide every class in Prussia with a teacher of its own, and to reduce each class to its normal size of 70 or 80 children, would require the appointment of 20,000 more Prussian teachers. That is the extent of the under-staffing of the Prussian school! (*C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 135.)

Attendance.—As we have already observed, the habit of regular attendance has become habitual and automatic in most parts of Germany. Precise figures as to what the percentage attendance actually is cannot be obtained. Our experience would seem to show that under favourable conditions the leakage is insignificant, and the percentage probably about 95 of the children enrolled. It has been estimated for the whole of Prussia at 90 per cent., and that is the figure now generally accepted. Registers are indeed kept in the Prussian school, and the children who are absent are daily noted; but this is done for police-court purposes. It is by these registers that the compulsory law of attendance is enforced. They have not as yet been utilised for statistical purposes, however, and there are really no official figures published on school attendance in Germany.

All the figures of school attendance in Germany quoted by English writers apply only to certain areas, or are approximations. The fact that such a large proportion of German

children attend school only half-day makes a comparison with the English figures of attendance impossible.

In all figures of school attendance it is essential to know how they are arrived at; thus, for the whole of France the figures are given sometimes as 90 per cent., at other times as about 80 per cent. Both are correct, the standard being in the one case children enrolled during the month, and in the other case children enrolled during the year in which the census was taken. A criticism of a similar nature may be urged against the English figures of average attendance. Until a common standard is arrived at, the comparison of average attendances in different States is most misleading.

As bearing upon the regularity of attendance, it is to be remembered that only one child out of 25 walks more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to school. Schools are more numerous, and the isolated homestead rarer, in Germany and in France than in England. There is, however, an exaggerated opinion of this regularity of attendance of German school children. A German writer observes: "That a number of Prussian children of the labouring population do not in name even attend school during the whole time required is well known, but it is not uninteresting to compare the respective figures. In the spring of 1891, 3,229 children (2,431 of them in Posen) could not be admitted because of overcrowded schools; 17,527 children are mentioned as not having entered school at the completion of their sixth year, but were kept back one or two years; 62,838 children were allowed to leave school before completing their fourteenth year—of these, 20,945 belonged to Rhenish Prussia, and 13,566 of them to the district of Düsseldorf." And he adds: "The last figures probably indicate children permitted by the inspector to leave school. In reality a much larger number leave before the legally appointed time, to lose in a short time in factories and industrial work a great deal of what has been acquired at school, if liberal provision is not made by establishing continuation schools." (*Tews, C.R., 1893-94, p. 210.*) And another observer notes: "Still too much of children's time out of school is often taken up by home industries, which materially depreciates the advantages of exact regular attendance. In the country, particularly in the eastern provinces, agricultural labour, such as tending flocks, is still performed by children. The time of instruction for some children—and for nearly all during the summer—is so much

shortened that good progress in school cannot be expected. This is the case especially in Mecklenburg, where the Dienstschule is still a poor substitute for a modern public elementary school. Some vacations—for instance, the one during beet-raising time—are also among the deplorable causes of irregularity in attendance. These vacations afford the opportunity of drawing children into industrial labour in a way that undermines their health and morals" (*C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 162, from Rein's *Encyclopedia of Education*.)

It cannot be stated too clearly and too strongly that although school attendance is admirable in Germany, it is not so perfect as English people are led to believe. German homes and parents are very similar in essential respects to English homes and parents. Children are as useful in rural Germany as in rural England. Further, the somewhat excessive altruism of modern society in England is not so conspicuous in Germany.

There is a good deal of vague sentimentalism in English life which finds a ready outlet in discussing the question of child labour. A reasonable amount of out-of-school labour is not uncongenial to the child, and counteracts some bad influences of his school training.

Further, in England it must be remembered that if a child reaches school "after the registers are closed," he is marked absent. The registers are never "closed" in Germany, and however unpunctual a child may be, still, provided he appears during the school session, he is not technically absent.

That the German school is not above criticism is admitted even by admirers:—"Many boys in Germany leave the common school before they have attained the end it has in view. They cannot express their own thoughts distinctly and intelligibly, correctly understand the expression of the thoughts of others, or give a quick and correct solution of simple arithmetical problems either mentally or in writing. These acquirements are indispensable, however, to the mechanic as well as the farmer, to carry on his trade or follow his pursuit with advantage, and to protect himself against losses. Common schools are deterred by many circumstances from gaining their object in every detail; domestic relations, the poverty or indifference of parents, great distance from school, sickness among children, overcrowding of the schoolroom, which prevents even excellent teachers from giving sufficient attention to each pupil, and finally, compulsory attendance in the greater

part of the State being enforced insufficiently—all of these causes contribute to the difficulties with which the elementary schools have to contend." (*C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 347.)

The factory system of Germany is of comparatively recent growth—indeed, one may say that the problems of child labour have still to be faced. The poverty and wealth of manufacturing Germany have increased enormously of recent years. The necessity of laws to protect children from that devouring fiend, modern commercialism, has only lately been felt. It has been eloquently said that "competition may be the life of trade, but it is the death of childhood." Even to-day the factory laws of Germany are not nearly so specific as those of England. In 1890 there were 19,275 factories where children were employed; that is 2,771 more than in 1888. The greatest number of factories employing juvenile labour were these:—

Food and drink factories	3,382
Stone and clay	2,682
Textile	2,577

The total number of children working for wages between 12 and 16 years of age was in 1890, 125,904, which number is an increase of 21,665 on that of 1888. (*C.R.*, 1889-90, p. 296.)

In 1897 a return was published by the Imperial Statistical Bureau which showed that there were in Germany nearly a quarter of a million children under 14 years of age who were working for wages, and over forty thousand of these under 12 years of age.¹ The following table shows how those children were employed:—

Occupation.	Children under 14 Years of Age.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Connected with Agriculture...	94,121	41,004	135,125
Connected with Industry ...	30,618	7,649	38,267
Connected with Commerce ...	3,506	1,790	5,296
Of different kinds not easily classified	325	1,487	1,812
Connected with Army and Navy ...	—	—	—
Other public service and professions ...	867	86	953
Domestic Service ...	848	32,653	33,501
Totals	130,285	84,669	214,954

¹ Children over 12 may be excused from further attendance at the day school if they have received a tolerably complete education.

Even this number is far below the truth. Prince von Hohenlohe lately instituted a further inquiry, from which it appears that there are 532,283 children, without counting those engaged in agriculture, who work for wages. To this must be added another 200,000 children engaged in agriculture and forestry. Thus it is shown that there are three quarters of a million children between six and fourteen years of age working for wages in Germany. (*C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. xxvii.)

These investigations show that the evil of child labour is much greater than was generally supposed. In rural districts it rises to 25 per cent. of the total number of school children, and is still greater in factory centres such as Altenburg with 33.6 per cent., and Hohenstein-Ernstthal with 60 per cent.! Again, an official report says: "In some of the principal districts of Berlin 1,013 out of 11,440 school children were employed in trades: 898 of them worked more than four hours; 283 began to work before six o'clock in the morning; 205 worked after nine o'clock at night; and 642 on Sundays." Here is a table of the little breakfast-carriers of Charlottenburg:—

		Boys.	Girls.
Children carrying breakfast—			
Before 4 o'clock A.M.	...	20	—
Between 4 and 4.30	...	85	10
Between 4.30 and 5	...	65	11
Between 5 and 5.30	...	88	11
Between 5.30 and 6	...	41	24
About 6 and later	...	50	23
Totals	...	349	79

(*C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. 822.)

That children are employed out of school hours on farm work in rural Germany to a very large extent, any one who knows the country will admit. Teachers are constantly bewailing this sad state of things. The local managers often fix school hours at unreasonably early hours, as from 6 to 10 A.M., or 7 to 11 A.M., or after 4 P.M., in order that the daily labour of the children shall not be unduly interfered with. I remember being shown the official regulation that if

the temperature before 10.30 A.M. has reached 80° F., there shall be no afternoon session, and I remarked that that was surely highly popular with the children. I was surprised to learn that it was the reverse of popular, the children preferring to be in school to labouring on the farm. The serious faces of German children are an index of the sober little souls within. They quickly learn the serious nature of life's duties. The levity of the English child is rarely seen abroad. The German child is expected as a matter of course to take his share of the daily toil of the farm. How universal this practice is the half-day school shows.

But it is in the great towns that the evil of child labour is so noticeable and so fatal. The German of to-day is not the German of 1870. Germany has become a great industrial community, and all the evil results of industrialism are facing the State—overcrowding, alcoholism, and extremes of poverty and wealth. The old world-famed simplicity of Germany has gone, and in its place we have the morbid appetites of the lower class and the vulgar ostentation of the bourgeois. Hence arise all the social sores of modern life. The standard of public morality is lowered, and the children are sacrificed. Families, too, are often big, and wages very small.

"But the most prolific source of industrial discontent is the lowness of wages rather than the long hours. The best paid classes of workpeople do not yet compare with the same classes in England, and the common rate of payment is very much lower. Even in the steel, iron, and coal industries the average earnings do not exceed £1 a week. In the textile trades this average is not reached. On the State railways porters are paid from 15s. to £1 3s. a week, according to length of service; stokers, £1 to £1 8s.; and engine-drivers, £1 3s. to £2. Bricklayers in Berlin, where the wages for such work are the highest, receive 7d. to 7½d. per hour, and work nine hours a day. It is, of course, in the rural districts, where decaying house industries are carried on—in parts of Silesia and Saxony, on the Bohemian border, in the Erzgebirge and the Riesengebirge—that the condition of the labouring population is most unfortunate. These small industries still employ over half a million of people, in spite of the unequal odds against which they have to contend. The most important occupations are weaving and spinning, hand and machine sewing, paper, metal, and wood working, and musical-instrument

and clock-making. . . . Next to the house-workers, women are the worst paid, especially where, as often happens in towns, there is severe competition for the work offered. An investigation into the wages earned by sixty thousand women engaged in Berlin showed a weekly average of 10s. to 11s. The minimum fell to 8s. and 7s., and the highest rates were 15s. to 17s. Out of such earnings the female worker had to pay 8s. to 9s. for food and lodging. Beginners and unskilful work-people, however, can hardly earn enough to provide the absolute necessities of existence. In Posen women's wages for home-sewing only amount to from 6d. to 9d. per day of eleven hours." (W. H. Dawson, *German Life in Town and Country*, p. 41.)

In Posen, as we might anticipate, the employment of school children is very general. "At the provincial teachers' meeting of 1897 it was stated that the school of Pomykowo (Lissa Co.) numbered 65 pupils, of whom 32 were employed in work at home, and 12 by strangers. The other 21 were still too small to work. Thirty-eight children, including 13 girls, tended cattle; the others worked in the fields from 4 A.M. till school-time, again during the noon intermission, and from the close of the school session till dark. The flock and herd tenders receive no wages, but clothing, and the field-workers from 15s. to £1 per year."

Another teacher reported:—"Only 2 out of a class of 55 do no farm labour; 20 are employed by strangers. Of these, 2 were 6 years, 1 was 7 years, 2 were 8 years, and 3 were 9 years old. Those over 10 years are usually hired out to strangers." (C.R., vol. i., 1899-1900, p. 810.)

A careful investigation and study of the official statistics will convince the student that child-labour is, unfortunately, as prevalent, and in its moral and physical effects as demoralising, in Germany as it is in other countries. The picture of these little ones employed in bowling-alleys, in booths, and in the field, is a painful one to contemplate. Moreover, signs are not wanting that this unfortunate state of things, instead of diminishing, is increasing. Germany, like England, is beginning to feel the curse of gold, the curse of sudden wealth. Much of the probity, the thrift, the simplicity of old Germany is being replaced by the Chauvinism of modern Germany.

The German Teacher.—Every observer of the German school system, however critical he may allow himself to be

on other matters, is compelled to pay homage to the fine character of the German teacher. There is no body of men under God's heaven who exhibit a greater sense of self-respect, conscientious regard to duty, and unswerving loyalty to their official superiors. No feeling of injustice, no resentment of bigotry, is allowed to interfere with the due discharge of their duties. Firm with their pupils, they command their loyalty and respect by their paternal sympathy.

The rod is used when necessary, but that is very seldom, and its use is most carefully regulated.¹ The discipline of the German school to-day is maintained with only rare appeals to corporal punishment, and is the admiration of all observers. Yet in the past there can be no doubt that the amount of flogging was often alarming, and that the authorities recognised this is shown by the elaborate regulations now in force to prevent its abuse.

The primary teachers of Prussia come from the following classes of society:—

	Male.	Female.
Agriculture, Cattle Rearing, and Hunting	... 21,387	1,314
Mining, Civil Engineering, and Industry	... 17,758	2,651
Commerce and Transit 5,640	1,550
Court and State Services and Liberal Professions	16,031	2,710

We thus see what a large number of German teachers spring from the farming class. Many begin as monitors, and in

¹ Mr. Fournier d'Albe, writing in a recent number of the *Practical Teacher*, says:—"In the *Revue pédagogique*, L. C. Bon gives an interesting summary of Fricke's book on the legal aspect of personal chastisement in German schools. In France it is absolutely forbidden to inflict any corporal punishment whatever. In the United Kingdom and in Germany, and in the majority of other European countries, corporal punishment is allowed. In Germany it is limited by certain rules, and the diversity of these rules in the various German states is the subject of some amusing comparisons. In Hessen the law forbids blows on the head, the face, the back, and the hands, leaving the rest of the body exposed to the attacks of the enemy. In Lower Bavaria the law of 1815 (still in force) says that light faults may be immediately corrected by the teacher, but in the case of graver delinquencies, the local inspector, usually the clergyman, has to pronounce the sentence, which is then executed by the hall porter in the inspector's presence. The construction, thickness, and length of the rod is subject to minute regulations in various districts, also the number of strokes. Cases of excessive punishment are frequently brought before the law courts by indignant parents. The lower courts usually acquit the teacher; but the Central Imperial Court of Leipzig, when appealed to, has often been known to be very severe on him. . . .

"M. Bon triumphantly compares the French with the German system.

return for the help they afford the master, he prepares them for the training school. For this service he is often allowed a certain bonus by the State. There are now in Prussia preparatory training schools for boys from fourteen to seventeen years of age, where they are specially educated for the normal school course. The fee is 30s. per annum, and the course extends over three years. There are about 3000 pupils in these schools.

The entrance examination to the training college is thorough and searching, as the State does not desire to be burdened with unprofitable pupils. The number of normal colleges in Prussia is, for men 115, for women 11.¹ They all have a highly religious atmosphere, and of the principals, 53 per cent. studied theology at the University. They are small, generally with less than one hundred pupils, are invariably located in small country towns, and have attached both a graded and an ungraded practising school. In many of these the pupils are boarded and lodged in the school

Although slow to conquer, the triumph of the principle of non-corporal punishment is definitely assured in France. Inspired by Rabelais, Montaigne, Fénelon, and Rousseau, French pedagogy maintains that school discipline must be founded upon the moral authority of the teacher, and not upon the fear of physical pain. ‘The aberrations of the will, of the heart and soul, cannot be corrected by blows which only reach the body.’ Now this is all very well theoretically; but practical teachers will agree that if a fault can be immediately followed by a corresponding punishment, an important educational aim is attained. The great advantage of corporal punishment lies in its immediate effectiveness. What the nature of the punishment is seems to be immaterial. It need only be some outward and tangible sign of the teacher’s displeasure. Most children feel the displeasure of the teacher more acutely than the actual punishment. The same number of blows exchanged with a schoolfellow in friendly combat might even be a source of keen enjoyment. On the other hand, a douche of cold water, if reserved for the purpose, might come to be regarded as an extremely severe and painful mode of punishment. In ultimate analysis, all punishment is moral punishment. The manner in which displeasure is brought home to the offender is a matter of secondary importance.”

¹ In 1897 there were:—

Sex.	Number of Colleges.	Students.					
		Total.	In College.	Out of College.	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.
Men ...	115	11,034	5,997	5,037	4,095	3,622	3,317
Women	11	748	372	376	279	233	236

buildings ; in others they board with families, under the control, however, of the college authorities. The colleges are maintained entirely by the State. The annual cost per student is £30. When the students live in the college, they are allowed £4 10s. annually by the State towards expenses ; if they board out, this allowance is increased to £7 10s. "The following is a daily programme adhered to in a Prussian normal school :—6 o'clock A.M., rising ; 6.30 till 7.30, preparing lessons under supervision ; 7.30 till 7.50, breakfast ; 7.50 till 8, religious exercises in chapel ; 8 A.M. till 1 P.M., five or six lessons in experimental teaching ; 1 till 1.30, dinner ; 1.30 till 2, playing and walking in the grounds ; 2 till 5, lessons in the academic department ; 5 till 6, practice in instrumental music ; 6 till 7, exercises out-doors, and gymnastics ; 7 till 7.30, supper ; 7.30 till 9.30, working and studying in class-rooms under supervision ; 9.30 till 10, evening prayer ; 10, hour for retiring." (*C.R.*, 1888-89, p. 157.) The salaries of the training college teachers are as follow (*Seeley, German School System*, p. 144) :—

Directors £200 to £270.
Head Teachers £150 to £200.
Ordinary „	... £90 to £160.
Assistant „	... £60 to £90.

The course, which is one of three years,¹ covers the subjects of the primary school, together with instrumental music (organ and violin), drawing, gymnastics, and pedagogy. The first-year students do no teaching, second-year students visit classes and observe methods, while the third-year students are required to teach from six to ten hours per week. At the end of the three years' course the Government examination is held, which includes :—

1. A written examination, consisting of—
 - (a) An essay on some pedagogical theme.
 - (b) An exercise describing a plan of teaching religion.
 - (c) Working three problems in Arithmetic and Geometry.
 - (d) Discussion of a topic in History, Natural Science, and Geography.
 - (e) Playing a piece of music on the organ.
 - (f) Translation of an exercise from and into a selected

¹ In four of them the course is of four, not three years.

foreign tongue. (This may be taken only when the other work is highly satisfactory.)

2. An oral examination in any subject of the course that may be asked for by the Royal Commission in whose presence the examination is being held.
3. Practical exhibition of his ability to teach by instructing a class before the Royal Commission. (*Seeley, ibid.*, p. 155.)

The examination is open to any one, and is not confined to training-college students. On its results the teachers are divided into six classes, according to merit. They are then appointed to schools for a probationary period of two years, during which they are visited and advised by their training-college professors. At the end of this period they are eligible for the final examination for teachers, which consists of writing an essay on some pedagogic theme. Having passed this, they become permanent teachers and government officials with an assured status, and a fair salary and pension. The teachers are appointed by the local managers from a list of three supplied them by the district inspector, and the terms of agreement are subject to the approval of that official. A minimum salary is fixed by the State.

There are 11,000 students in the Prussian normal schools for men, and these give an annual supply of 3,500 trained teachers to keep the ranks filled of an army of 80,000. This supply must prove inadequate. The most remarkable feature of the German school staff is the increase in number of the female teachers. The growth in the number of women teachers is shown thus:—

Year.	Women = per cent. of Men.
1822	2.21
1834	2.98
1846	7.16
1855	8.03
1864	9.14
1877	8.10
1886	11.83
1896	14.90

Recently the Government has allowed graduates of the normal schools the privilege of one instead of two years' military service, and this has carried with it the privilege of entry to certain other professions, which will result in a further decrease of men teachers. The women teachers have in some cases been through a training-college course, but the training-college accommodation for women students is most inadequate.¹ Many of the women teachers (one-fourth of the total) were candidates for teacherships in the middle or higher primary schools, but failed to qualify for these posts, satisfying, however, the requirements for elementary teachers. The women candidates must be eighteen years of age. They have only one examination to pass, the subjects of which are: Religion, Language, Arithmetic, History, Geography, Natural History, Physics and Chemistry, Pedagogics, Vocal Music, Drawing, and French, or English (optional). Needlework in the German primary school is taught by special teachers.

Only about one-third of the women teachers are employed in the rural schools, whilst of the men two-thirds are found in them. The women teachers in the rural districts are mainly Catholics. Practically two-thirds of all the Prussian women teachers are found in three provinces—Berlin, Westphalia, and the Rhine Province.²

"In cities the percentage of men decreased (between 1886 and 1896) from 81.73 to 77.87, in the country from 93.50 to 92.50, while the percentage of women employed in cities rose from 18.27 to 22.13, and in the country from 6.50 to 7.50. In the aggregate the number of women increased 50 per cent. during the decade 1886-96—*i.e.*, in the cities 60.5 per cent., and in the country 34.3, while the whole number of male teachers increased only 18.6 per cent.—*i.e.*, 26.2 per cent. in the cities, and 15.1 per cent. in the country." (C.R., 1898-99, p. 134.)

¹ Besides the public there are a number of private normal schools, mainly used by Jewish and female teachers.

² In 1894 of the Berlin teachers 41 per cent. were women.

The relative proportion of the two sexes is further amplified in these two tables :—

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS.

Year.	Men.		Women.	
	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
1886	57,902	89.42	6,848	10.58
1891	62,272	88.07	8,439	11.93
1896	68,688	86.99	10,271	13.01

The distribution of sex amongst sects is interesting :—

MALE.

Year.	Protestant.	Catholic	Other Christians.	Jews.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1886	70.64	28.58	0.04	0.74
1896	70.40	29.09	0.01	0.50

FEMALE.

1886	37.25	61.81	0.16	0.78
1896	44.41	54.98	0.01	0.60

Besides this army of regular teachers, Prussia has a large army of irregulars. These are the persons who teach Needle-work, Religion, Manual Training, etc. In 1896 there were—

37,193 teachers of Needlework.

2,252 ,, Religion

499 ,, Manual Training, etc.

39,944, total number of special teachers.

Payment of Teachers.—Teachers' salaries are often derived from many sources in Germany, and it occasionally happens that the duty of collecting them devolves upon the teacher himself. In considering teachers' salaries abroad it is essential to

remember the varying purchasing power of money and the different methods of living of different peoples. The salary of German rural teachers is often about £50 per annum, but it must be remembered that he has a house rent free and the use of some twenty or thirty acres of land, which he generally farms himself. He often ekes out his little salary by giving private lessons at the neighbouring Schloss. It must, however, be confessed that as a rule the salary of the Prussian rural teacher is very low, and inadequate to rear a family on. Indeed, it is often but little better than the wages of a fairly good labourer. (Tews, *C.R.*, 1893-94, p. 242.) After giving a table showing the great variation in salaries, Mr. Tews remarks: "These figures are a convincing proof of the inadequate regulation of salaries: a female teacher, 19 years old, with 1,201 to 1,350 marks; a male teacher of the same age with 1,501 to 1,650 marks (rural position); and next to them a male teacher of 40 to 50, and two others of 30 to 40 years of service, with 451 to 600 marks!" Of course, isolated instances of this kind are of but little comparative value. The average salaries of men and women teachers in Prussia are given in these two tables. It may be mentioned that the average annual income per person in Prussia in 1893 was £17, and in 1897 it was £18.

MEN'S SALARIES (including free dwelling and fuel).

Year.	Cities.	Country.	Average in the State.
1886	£78	£54	£61
1891	85	60	69
1896	96	64	77

WOMEN'S SALARIES.

1886	£57	£45	£52
1891	60	48	56
1896	66	54	61

"The salaries of male and female teachers bear the following ratios: In cities, 100 to 69; in the country, 100 to 80; or an

average of 100 to 79, or 5 to 4. These about correspond to the number of hours employed by both sexes, so that the principle of equal pay for men and women is generally carried out with Prussian school teachers." (*Tews, C.R.*, 1893-94, p. 241.)

To the minimum salary which the community is compelled to pay, the State adds annually a certain increment until a maximum is reached. Teachers' salaries vary considerably, according to the province—*e.g.*,

In the Rhine Province	it is for men,	£86	; for women,	£61.
„ East Prussia	„	58;	„	47.
„ City of Berlin	„	143;	„	77.

In 1886 the proportion of teachers who were supplied with houses was 68.36 per cent.—viz., 20.78 per cent. in the towns and 90.38 per cent. in the country; but in 1896 the proportion was only 63.71 per cent.—namely, 15.74 per cent. in the towns and 88.1 per cent. in the country.

On the whole, there is little to choose between the lot of the Prussian town and country teacher. Living, rent, etc., are much higher in the town, and the status of the village teacher is distinctly higher than it is in most other countries. My personal impression is that on the whole the German rural teacher does not compare unfavourably in material welfare with rural teachers in other lands, and this opinion is confirmed by an American observer.

"The salaries of teachers, compared with what is paid for similar service in our own country, are small, but when we remember that the purchasing power of money is far greater in Germany than it is here, that the salaries in *all* professions are low, that the tenure of office of the teacher is very strong, and that liberal Government aid is given to the teacher in case of disability, and to his family in the event of his death, we can well understand why the profession of teaching calls to it the highest talent and most profound learning which a highly civilised State can produce." (J. T. Prince.)

The fact that about one-fifth of all Prussian teachers are sons of teachers is proof of the popularity of the profession, despite the number of teachers who have extraneous duties to perform. Here is a table of teachers who have to perform extraneous duties for the Church:—

Year.	Country.	Town.	Average.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1891	31.93	9.26	24.40
1896	28.46	7.80	21.50

It should be noted that both French and Prussian primary teachers are forbidden to undertake any other duties than those of their profession.

The average professional life of the German teacher is said to be twenty-five years, but the recent introduction of the pension law has cleared out many of the "old guard," and at present the profession is distinctly youthful. About one-sixth of the men teachers are under 25, about two-fifths under 30, and more than half under 35 years of age.

In Prussia, as in France, the teachers, being civil servants, are, like all other civil servants, entitled to a pension, which is paid by the State but supplemented by the local community. The State pays £30 as a maximum annual allowance. The amount of pension depends on the length of service. If retirement takes place after ten years' service, the pension equals fifteen-sixtieths; for each year of further service it rises by one-sixtieth up to a maximum of forty-five-sixtieths of the salary. The age of retirement is sixty-five.

In case of death, the widow receives a sum of money which is independent of the length of service. However, by a recent Bill the widow's allowance is to be 40 per cent. of the pension to which the teacher was entitled at the date of his death. This sum, however, is never to be less than £10 nor more than £100. If the widow is fifteen years younger than her husband, the amount she receives will be reduced. For each child the widow receives an allowance equal to one-fifth of her own. These amounts cease if the widow marries again, or when the children are eighteen years of age. Towards the pension of teachers the State contributes (1896) an annual sum of £420,939.

In case of marriage, female teachers on retiring from the profession forfeit the contributions which they have annually paid towards their pension.

The following statistics indicate the growth of the Prussian primary system:—

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

—	1861.	1864.	1871.	1886.
Number of private schools ...	1,434	1,460	1,409	888
Number of classes ...	2,944	3,105	3,414	2,942
Number of pupils ...	84,021	88,064	88,714	63,144

ELEMENTARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

—	1886.	1891.	1896.
Number of schoolhouses ...	34,016	34,742	36,138
Number of class-rooms ...	66,540	72,921	86,311
Number of pupils ...	4,838,247	4,916,476	5,236,826

ELEMENTARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

—	In Towns.		
	1886.	1891.	1896.
Number of schoolhouses ...	3,718	3,871	4,242
Number of class-rooms ...	23,078	26,616	30,090
Number of pupils ...	1,503,906	1,615,455	1,773,370

—	In the Country.		
	1886.	1891.	1896.
Number of schoolhouses ...	30,298	30,871	31,866
Number of class-rooms ...	43,453	46,305	50,221
Number of pupils ...	3,334,341	3,301,021	3,403,450

NUMBER OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO RELIGION.

—	1886.	1891.	1896.
Protestant children ...	3,062,856	3,107,701	3,296,481
Catholic children ...	1,730,402	1,766,835	1,901,013
Other Christian children ...	9,569	11,554	12,317
Jewish children ...	35,420	30,386	27,015

In considering the Prussian system of school training, the first matter that strikes the observer is the exquisite adaptation of means to ends. Without the resources of England or France, this land of philosophers and peasants has taught the world that righteousness alone exalteth a nation, and that even from the depths of a profound despair the brave nation, like the brave man, may on stepping-stones of the dead self rise to nobler things. Out of their slender hoard of national resources, chief of which was a severe simplicity¹—plain living and high thinking—they have built a system of school-training which in its efficiency and economy is unequalled elsewhere. With but indifferent natural resources (even to-day she has practically only one first-rate seaport), Germany has reached a front position as a commercial people, and challenges the supremacy of England and America. With so little has she been able to do so much; and what faith in its future must

¹ "How little culture and money are necessary associates in Germany may be judged from an instructive classification of the nation, which was drawn up some years ago by Professor Gustav Schmoller, the well-known economist. Schmoller divides the people into four broad groups. The first is an 'aristocratic and well-to-do' group of 250,000 families, consisting (such is his conclusion) of large landowners, princes of industry, the highest State officials, popular doctors and artists, and also *rentiers*, with incomes exceeding £450 a year. Then he places in the 'upper middle class' 2,750,000 families, including members of the landowning and commercial classes in medium circumstances, the majority of higher officials, and many members of the liberal professions, with incomes ranging between £135 and £450; a third group takes in 3,750,000 families of the 'lower middle class,' made up of farmers, artisans, small tradespeople, officials, and the better-paid skilled workpeople, with incomes ranging from £90 to £135. Lastly come 5,250,000 families, which he assigns to the 'lower classes,' comprising principally wage-earners, but also the humbler officials and artisans and peasants of the poorer class, whose incomes fall below £45 a year." — *German Life*, by W. H. Dawson.

a people have that sets itself deliberately to training two or three generations for the coming Sedan, in military and commercial matters !

The Germans are credited with a supreme faith in themselves and their mission. The past has justified them.

Then, too, their loyalty to true education is admirable. Neither the clamour of the specialist nor the cry of the market is able to divert them from their task. They remain true to the faith that is in them, and here, too, time has justified them. It is now acknowledged that no schools in the world give a better commercial training than the Realschulen, although no commercial subjects are taught in them.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF FRANCE.

THE French system of education is intensely national and comprehensive. It is divided into three branches—primary, secondary, and academic. Its head is the Minister of Public Instruction, and he is assisted by an advisory council consisting of sixty members, one-fourth appointed by the President and the remainder by the professors and teachers. This council meets twice annually. There are ten General Inspectors and a considerable number of Primary Inspectors annually despatched from Paris to investigate the conditions of education in certain selected areas. The functions of the council are the creation, suppression, or transformation of schools and colleges, and the choice of books to be used in the class-room, library, or as prizes. They also advise the Minister on any matter submitted by him to them dealing with instruction, administration, or discipline. The work of the council is done mainly by an executive committee of fifteen, which meets weekly.

The national system is organised into seventeen academies (of which Algiers is one). Each academy comprises the local university, together with all the secondary and primary schools within that area. Each academy is presided over by a Rector appointed by the President.

Each academy comprises several departments. The civil head of each department, namely the Prefect, has certain powers over the primary schools ; for example, he appoints the “full” teachers (*titulaires*), but his choice is restricted to a list drawn up for him by the Academy Inspector.

The Rector of each academy is assisted by a small council consisting of public functionaries for education.

The chief officer under the Rector is the Academy Inspector, who is appointed by the Minister. There is an Academy Inspector to each department. Under the Academy Inspector come the Primary Inspectors, and it is these who come into direct contact with the teachers and pupils; they altogether number 450, and each one has about 150 schools under his supervision.

The Prefect of each department is assisted in the administration of the schools by the departmental council, which meets four times a year. The Prefect is the President, and the Academy Inspector the Vice-President.

The council is as a rule made up of fourteen members, including four councillors, general members of the departmental council, elected by their colleagues, the director and directress of the normal training colleges, two primary inspectors appointed by the Minister of Education, and two primary male and two primary female teachers elected by the teachers of the department. Should matters arise touching private schools, two representatives, one lay and one clerical, are elected by their colleagues. All these members are elected for three years; they receive no salary, but their travelling expenses are allowed.

The departmental council is the departmental Board of Education. It supervises the courses of study, methods of instruction, etc., prescribed by the central authority in Paris, arranges for the medical inspection of schools, considers the annual report of the Academy Inspector on the state of the public and private schools of the department, authorises or refuses the opening of private schools, arranges for the provision of primary, higher primary, and sub-primary education, wherever such appears necessary, and deals with the teachers in all cases of discipline—in fine, generally controls and supervises the whole of the primary education of the department.

It is evident from this brief conspectus of the French educational system that it is very bureaucratic and centralised. This is recognised by French writers—e.g., M. Levasseur in *L'Enseignement primaire dans les Pays civilisés*, p. 72, and also M. Bréal in *Excursions pédagogiques*, p. viii. Indeed, the only local authorities concerned with education are the communal councils and mayors, who select the sites for the school buildings, and vote the funds which the communes

themselves have to provide; and secondly, the Commissions scolaires, or School Attendance Committees, which were formed, so it is said, to encourage school attendance. Is it not remarkable that although Rousseau expressly set forth education as one of the rights of man, yet in his own country this right is ignored? In every French primary school a copy of the Rights of Man is hung in a place of honour, and in every French school the principle is ignored. Every commune must establish at least one primary school, and if the population is above 500, then a separate school for girls must be provided. Out of 36,492 communes, at present only 96 are without a school of their own. Infant schools for children under six are not compulsory in the smaller communes. Every department must maintain a primary normal school for men and one for women teachers.

The system of primary instruction is due almost entirely to the Third Republic. The whole bears the impress of Napoleonic genius for logical consistency and centralised control. It shows the national genius for classification, order, and consistency. The French mind thinks in straight lines. The system is more autocratic, further removed from the democratic ideal than almost any other public system of education, yet its practical success is full warrant that it meets the present needs of the people. The fact that it does not appeal to foreigners is probably a proof of how expressive it is of the people. It fulfils their ideal, not the critics'. And these national ideals clash. Nevertheless, they are the salt of society. The principles underlying the system and the results are thus summarised by a French writer:—

"The Republic was from the first convinced that France, overcome by misfortunes, ought to find in every citizen a soldier, and in every soldier an educated man. Hence at the very time when, as the consequence of a foreign invasion, we were obliged to make the heaviest sacrifices, our republican parliaments did not hesitate to declare war against ignorance, to multiply the number of teachers, and to erect school buildings everywhere. 'The future of French Democracy,' wrote Jules Simon, 'is in its schools'; and under his orders and those of his successors a vigorous movement was produced. Little by little, thanks to the diverse measures taken to promote it, thanks, above all, to the laws which, in spite of

reactionary efforts, established gratuitous, compulsory, and secular education, the movement has had these results:—It has put within the reach of all parents the means of educating their children; by the aid of scholarships it has facilitated for the most worthy pupils access to secondary and superior education; and it has given to the children of the poor, by an equality of culture, the same intellectual equipment for the struggles of life as to the children of the rich.” (Report by Maurice Faure, *C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 1,095.)

The French system of primary schools compares in certain respects not unfavourably with even that of Germany, despite the fact that compulsory education has only been in existence some twenty-five years. A distinguished American writer observes:—“The new ideas in education at present come more from France than from Germany; we must turn to France to become imbued with the spirit of modern times: it is from there we get new suggestions and ideas.” And one of the leading German educators, Professor Waetzoldt, thus summarises his impression of the Chicago Exhibition:—“I received the impression that France has become our closest competitor in education generally, and especially in the elementary schools.” An American observer acquainted with several systems of national education thus sums up the position in France:—“In France, as in Prussia, primary instruction is secured by the State against all casualties. It is uniform and invariable, because the primary schools represent the body of the nation, and are destined to nourish and to strengthen the national unity. Compulsory education laws necessitate a full and regular attendance of the children of school age. Official courses of study fix the work to be accomplished in each of the different grades of schools. Teaching is elevated to the dignity of a profession, and the tenure of office is secure. The State is most generous in supporting schools in poor and thinly populated districts. Trained teachers are found in rural as well as in city districts, and the school year is at least forty weeks in length. The State supervises the instruction of children of school age in private schools and families, insisting on definite qualifications for private instructions. A minimum of qualifications is established for all teachers and inspectors of schools. Special teachers must hold the certificate of capacity for their particular lines of work.” (J. R. Parsons, *French Schools through*

American Eyes, p. 10.) The same conclusion is reached by a study of the figures of illiteracy.¹

The French public primary schools are free and secular. Only lay teachers may be employed, and all teachers, whether in public or private schools, must hold the State diploma. Education is compulsory, but parents are allowed to choose the means. As a result in Catholic France there arises the sectarian private schools. These receive no State support whatever, but they are subject to a State inspection, and to similar requirements as are the public schools, except that the State allows them freedom as to curricula and methods.

Nevertheless, they are rapidly increasing at the expense of the public schools. The enrolment in public primary schools (*i.e.*, primary and higher primary) in 1897 was 4,189,506, a decrease of 5½ per cent. on that of 1887. The enrolment in the private primary schools (chiefly Catholic) was in 1897 = 1,341,098, which is a gain of 23 per cent. on the enrolment in 1887. The following table shows the continuous growth of the private at the expense of the public school, as well as the gradual laicisation of the Church schools :—

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

—	1885-86.	1890-91.	1895-96.
Number of pupils—			
In public schools	5,585,838	5,593,883	5,533,511
In private schools	4,504,059	4,384,905	4,199,727
In secular schools	1,083,779	1,208,978	1,333,784
In Church schools... ..	3,836,826	3,912,013	3,898,806
	1,749,012	1,681,870	1,634,705

(From Rein's *Encyclopædia*; C.R., 1899-1900, p. 778.)

1 PROPORTION OF ILLITERATES IN FRANCE.

Year.	Conscripts.	Newly Married.	
		Men.	Women.
1870	—	26.8	39.4
1881	14.4	16.1	24.5
1887	10.2	10.7	17.0
1892	6.9	8.1	12.2
1895	5.4	6.3	9.4
1896	5.3	—	—

The system of Catholic schools is a remarkable proof of the strength of the Church. The men teachers belong mainly to the order of Christian Brothers, and the sisters to one or other of the numerous teaching orders of the Catholic Church. They are celibates, and devote themselves without remuneration entirely to this work of teaching. To maintain these schools, the Catholics of France annually raise a sum of two and a half million pounds sterling. The teachers are compelled by the law to hold the required State certificates.

The total enrolment in primary schools, public and private, in 1897 was 5,530,604, which is equivalent to 14 per cent. of the population, or, including infants, 16 per cent.

Every child between the ages of six and thirteen must attend school regularly. It is the duty of parents to inform the mayor of their commune that they propose sending their children to such and such a school, whether public or private. If they elect to provide special teachers at home, the child will, at the end of each year, be examined by a small committee of experts, of which the primary inspector is chairman. If the result of the examination is unsatisfactory, the parents are ordered to send the child to a public or private school. As a matter of fact, this system has quite broken down, and is rarely put into operation now.

The mayor annually makes out a list of all the children of school age in the commune, and forwards it to the teachers and inspector. Absences or changes must be duly notified by the parents to the mayor, and the reasons given. The School Attendance Committee then takes the matter in hand, and if necessary warns the parents. If the warning is twice repeated in a twelvemonth, the services of the police are requisitioned, and a fine inflicted.

Thursday and Sunday are holidays, so as to give the parents an opportunity of giving their children religious instruction!

Any child over eleven years of age may sit for the examination for the Certificate of Primary Studies, and if successful is exempt from further attendance.¹ This examination is both written and oral. It consists of: -

1. A piece of dictation of not more than fifteen lines.
2. Two questions in arithmetic.

¹ In rural France the *Certificat d'Études*, which may be passed at eleven years of age, has become for pupils, whether they pass or fail, the "signal for departure en masse." (Brereton, *Special Reports*, vol. vii.)

3. A simple composition.

4. Needlework for girls.

If half marks are obtained in the foregoing, the candidate will undergo an oral examination, which is public, in

1. Reading and Recitation.

2. Geography and History.¹

Agriculture and drawing may also be offered by the candidate, and if he is successful, the fact is mentioned on the certificate. The numbers obtaining this, and the corresponding certificate of the higher primary school, increase annually:—

Year.	Certificate of Primary Studies.			Certificate of Superior Primary Studies.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1887 ...	80,941	64,193	145,134	790	422	1,212
1892 ...	96,412	79,263	175,675	1,132	718	1,850
1896 ...	101,380	86,306	187,686	1,237	767	2,004

(C.R., 1898-99, p. 1,096.)

The Commissions scolaires (School Attendance Committees) may, with the sanction of the departmental council, allow children who have attained the age of apprenticeship and are employed in labour to attend school half-time, and the same privilege is allowed to children employed in agriculture. The employment of children of school age during school-hours and out of school-hours is very general, and to diminish the ill effects of this both half-day schools and abnormal hours for the daily school session have been sanctioned. The primary inspector of the rural districts near Dieppe recently investigated the causes of absence of children from school:—

	Boys.	Girls.
Taking care of younger children	... 20	68
Work at home or in service	... 186	108
Want of clothes, dirtiness, scurf	... 51	30
Wandering about	... 25	6
Habitual and daily begging	... 25	15
Disinclination, neglect	... 116	116
Miscellaneous	... 34	34

457 377
(Medd, *Special Reports*, vol. vii.)

¹ The standard of this examination is considered equivalent to Standard V. of the English school.

The law on child-labour in France is thus summarised :—

“(France. Law of June 2, 1874.) Children below ten years and girls below twenty-one years shall not be employed in any work on Sundays by their patrons, in manufactories, mines, wood (or dock) yards, and workshops. In workshops where constant fires are kept up, children may be employed on Sundays and holidays in indispensable work conformably to the public administrative regulations.

(a) Children shall not be employed in any kind of work before having completed their tenth year.

(b) Restrictions with respect to children from the beginning of their eleventh year until their twelfth year complete :

1. No child must be employed unless it be shown that he actually attends a public or private school.
2. Children of this age must not be employed except in industries specially designated by a public administrative regulation (spinning factories of all classes, twisting work, printing on cloth, paper industries, glass manufacturing work, etc.).
3. Children shall not be subjected to work for any length of time exceeding six hours a day.
4. The working hours must be divided by a recess.
5. Children shall not be employed in any kind of night work. All work between nine o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning is considered night work.
6. They shall not be employed in work on Sundays or legal holidays.

(c) Restrictions with respect to children from the beginning of their thirteenth year until their fourteenth year complete :

1. They shall not be employed more than twelve hours a day. Before the age of fifteen years complete, no child shall be permitted to work more than six hours a day, except it be proved that he has acquired an elementary primary school education.
2. The working hours shall be divided by recesses.
3. They shall not be employed in any night work.
4. They shall likewise not be employed in any work on Sundays or legal holidays.

5. The work of children in subterranean passages is not permitted, except under the special conditions determined by the public administrative regulations.

(d) Exceptions :

1. In workshops where continued fires are maintained, children may be employed at night or on Sundays and holidays in work determined by the public administrative regulations.
2. The public administrative regulations determine the different kinds of work which, because they are sources of danger to children or exceed their strength, are prohibited.
3. Children cannot be employed in the manufactories and workshops indicated in the official list of unhealthy or dangerous establishments, except under the special conditions set forth by the public administrative regulation.¹ (*C.R.*, 1893-94, p. 191.)

School Finance.—The cost of primary instruction is divided between—

1. The State,
2. The Department,
3. The Commune,

and the items which each pays are set out clearly by law, and strike the reader as logical and reasonable. Thus the State pays—

1. The teachers of primary and infant schools.

¹ The following cutting throws a curious light on the question of child-labour in France :—"From time to time [writes the *Star's* Rome correspondent] public feeling here is harrowed by accounts of the poor little Italian children who are enticed across the frontier into France to live a life of martyrdom in the glass factories of Lyons or the streets of Paris, as vendors of plaster casts, or, when that fails, as beggars, in order that the infamous contractor or 'slave-driver' may fatten on their earnings. The Institution in Aid of Emigrants has just published the result of an inquiry into the matter, and, needless to say, it is not pleasant reading. The slave-driver recruits his material chiefly in the country situated between Rome and Naples. When the peasants see this prosperous-looking individual with fine gold rings on his fingers, and listen to his glib tongue, they are easily persuaded to entrust their children to his care. The promise of a remittance of £2 every six months and of fortune for their boys is too tempting to be resisted, and the bargain is soon struck. The formality of a passport does not present much difficulty, and as French law prohibits the employment in factories of children under thirteen years of age, care is taken, by false declaration or forgery, to be *en règle*. The departure

2. The teachers of higher primary and manual training schools (*École pratique*).
3. The teachers of the normal schools.
4. All inspectors and other officials, and their travelling expenses.
5. For maintenance of normal students and other expenses of the normal schools not provided by the department.
6. For decorations and prizes for teachers.

The Department finds—

1. An allowance of at least £12 per annum to each primary inspector.
2. The maintenance cost of the normal school buildings.
3. The furnishing and equipment of the normal schools.
4. The maintenance of the departmental offices of education.
5. Office expenses of the academy inspector.
6. Cost of books and pamphlets used by the cantonal delegations (these are delegates nominated for three years by the departmental council to watch over the public and private schools of the cantons in each department) and the academic administration.
7. The salaries of special instructors employed to teach Woodwork, Agriculture, etc., in the department.

Lastly, the Commune pays for—

1. Lodgings for the teachers.
2. Purchase of site and maintenance of school buildings.
3. Firing and lighting of school premises.
4. Wages of the servant employed in the infant school, and of the caretaker (when one is employed) of the primary school.
5. Equipment and furnishing of school premises.

takes place at night-time. The children pass the frontier in driblets, in order not to excite attention, and the trick is done. ‘I was forced to work twelve hours at a stretch in front of the furnace,’ says one of these little martyrs. ‘I had no shirt to change, when I was dripping with perspiration. One day I fainted and fell down. When I recovered my senses, I was forced to resume my work. I fainted again, and they took me to the hospital. Frequently drops of molten glass would fall on my bare feet or on my chest or face.’ The report of the inquiry tells of consumptive children, scarcely able to stand, driven to the glass factories with whips, of corpses on whose flesh appeared the livid marks of blows. These children earn about 1s. 6d. a day, and their keep costs about 2½d. a day. As to the risk which the slave-driver runs, a conviction (always very difficult to obtain) only brings with it six months’ imprisonment, so he is soon at liberty to resume his infamous calling.”

6. Purchase of registers, books, etc. (See Parsons, *French Schools through American Eyes*, p. 58.)

The relative proportion in which these three bodies maintain the schools is shown by the following table, from which it will be seen that the State contribution has increased very considerably of recent years:—

Year.	Communes.	Departments.	State.
1877	57.4	18.0	24.6
1882	20.5	13.3	66.2
1887	28.1	12.4	59.5

In 1897 the proportion contributed by the State towards the system of public primary schools reached 67 per cent. The State contribution varies according to local needs. Many communes are too poor to support a school; the great cities, on the contrary, not only bear the expenses of their own schools, but contribute something in excess. All French towns with a population exceeding 150,000 are required to provide primary schools without help from the State, but if the municipality is necessitous the State makes a special contribution in aid. Five French cities provide the whole of the money required for their primary schools, and consequently enjoy a greater freedom from State interference than is the rule: these cities are Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, and Lille.

The total amount devoted by the State to primary education was as follows:—

1887 ...	£3,389,752
1892 ...	4,994,550
1898 ...	6,178,141

The total amount expended for the public primary schools was:—

Year.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure on each Child enrolled.
1886	£6,810,246	21/-
1891-92	7,452,223	32/-
1895	7,578,034	36/-
1896-97	8,560,610	37/-

School Buildings.—In no department of public education has the reforming zeal of the last quarter of a century shown itself with more marked and salutary effects than in the department of school construction. Since 1877 the French Government has been steadily applying itself to the improvement of school premises and training colleges, and up to 1893 it had allocated to this purpose a sum of no less than 650,000,000 francs. The largest towns have been doing this work for themselves. Paris, for example, alone spent 110,000,000 francs. Altogether France has spent during the last thirty years a sum of thirty-four millions sterling for school buildings.¹

This immense expenditure has called forth considerable criticism. The temptation held out in the form of subsidies by the central authority has sometimes proved too strong for the native innocence of ambitious localities. (See Levasseur's *L'Enseignement primaire*, p. 74.)

The total amount per annum spent by a State is not the best criterion of the value of the school buildings. The basis of comparison between the value of two school buildings is the amount that each seat costs. The actual average cost of school buildings during the period 1894-97 was £1,053, and of each school seat about £12. Of the total expenditure on primary schools the proportional contributions were—State, 40 per cent., Departments, 4 per cent., Communes, 56 per cent.; and of that on the normal schools—State, 38 per cent., Departments, 59 per cent., and the Communes 3 per cent. (Brereton.)

The French, like the German, rural school sometimes consists of two storeys, the upper being the master's house. At other times the teacher's house is placed between the boys' and girls' schools. The heating arrangements consist of a stove, the chimney-pipe of which is passed through a second class-room, so as to heat that also.

There is no fireplace, and the only means of ventilation are the windows. These are very large, so that the rooms are well lighted. The windows are often destitute of blinds.

The playground is small, and the teacher's garden monopolises half of it. The desks are often heavy and antiquated,

¹ "From 1878 to 1897, 35,145 maternal or primary schools, and 163 normal schools, have been built or acquired, and 19,817 have been fitted up and furnished." (Brereton, *ibid.*, p. 13.)

like those of the German school, and are as a rule of one size only. The sanitary arrangements of the rural schools are as a rule of a primitive character.

The walls of the class-rooms are not so bare as those of the German school, being decorated with patriotic mottoes ; there are, however, few pictures or busts.

The city school contains a residence for the head teacher, a dining-hall for the staff, and a dining-hall for the pupils, which is also used for physical exercise and recreation. The school also possesses a special room for drawing, a workshop for manual training, a girls' workroom, an anteroom, and a kitchen. Each school in Paris is provided with a library for both teachers and pupils.

The French official regulations for school buildings are, like all their regulations, admirably explicit and suitable.

A French primary school should, we are told, comprise a cloak-room, or a vestibule which may serve as a cloak-room, together with a covered court with gymnasium, and often (in schools of less than three classes) a little workshop for manual work. The school should also possess a playground with the usual offices, a conference-room for parents, head and assistant teachers' rooms, and rooms for drawing and gymnastic exercise. The playground, as in the German school, is generally covered with gravel, and contains simple apparatus for gymnastic exercises.

The Parisian schools are generally very well lighted and ventilated. The class-room walls are nicely tinted and well decorated, and have a good supply of blackboard space. The desks are generally dual and of a suitable size. The children are periodically measured. The schools are medically inspected twice a month.

Slates are not used in the schools of Paris after the first six months of school life, but lead-pencil or pen and paper are used instead. The *École maternelle* is visited weekly by a physician. These schools often possess baths for washing the children. The official regulations prohibit the teaching of needlework to these little ones—a most wise regulation,—and, moreover, the teachers are forbidden to burden the children with poems and dialogues for public concerts, etc. The children are promoted to the primary school thrice annually. The premises are washed and scrubbed daily. In the playground there is a garden with trees.

The playground is covered with sand : it must not be covered with cement.

The children sit at small tables in groups of eight, each provided with a small chair, or sometimes they sit in dual desks. There is a bed provided for the use of each group of babies. In the playground there are wooden benches, with backs, for the children to sit on, also suitable playthings for the playground, such as go-carts, wheel-barrows, ropes, hoops, etc., are provided by the authorities. As rewards for good conduct the children receive little toys or pictures.

No less than 6,234 of the French primary schools are provided with gymnasiums, and 752 of them have a workshop properly fitted up for manual training. Every school for boys in Paris is provided with a manual-training workshop. It should be mentioned that manual work is compulsory throughout France,¹ but it is generally taught in the ordinary class-room—not in specially fitted rooms.

Fourteen thousand schools in France possess museums. Many of the collections are not above criticism, but, as Buisson said, "The great advantage of a school museum is not in having it, but in making it."

52,309 French primary schools are provided with a school garden.

Two other interesting aspects of the French system are the great development of both school savings banks and libraries.

In the year 1893, for example, France had more savings banks for school children than the whole of the German Empire had in 1896—namely, 19,631 banks, with 438,967 depositors, and deposits of over thirteen million francs (£520,000).

In 1897 two-thirds of all French primary schools were provided with school libraries, and altogether there were over six million volumes in these libraries, not to speak of another million volumes in the teachers' libraries.

We have already described what the German and English primary scholars are expected to know when they leave school, and it will be interesting here to see what the corresponding accomplishments of the French scholar are :—

"The young scholar who passes from the elementary primary school at the age of thirteen, having spent two years at least in the superior *cours*, has been taught to speak with grammatical correctness, to write and read the French language

¹ That is the regulation, but it is not carried out in the rural school.

with ease and fluency, and to recite from memory many fine selections from the poets. He has read in the school some of the best scenes from the great French dramatists; he has acquired general ideas of the history of antiquity—Egypt, the Israelites, Greece, Rome—of the Middle Ages, and of Modern Europe, and a deeper knowledge of the history of France, with special reference to its modern history, of the French colonies, and of the main features of the physical and political history of Europe. He has also acquired a knowledge of arithmetic in its most useful forms, including the metric system, interest, and discount; he has got elementary notions of geometry; freehand, model, and geometric drawing; a very elementary course of physical and natural science, agriculture, music, and civic instruction, this last embracing the main features of the French Constitution, such as the constitutional functions of the President of the Republic, of the Senate, of the Chamber of Deputies, of the Central and Departmental administration, of the Army, etc. This course of instruction does not pretend to depth, but rather to be of general utility." (Teegan, *Elementary Education in France*, p. 79.)

The aim of the French teacher is not to try to exhaust any subject, but to teach his pupil just those things that every one must know. It is only the indispensable modicum of knowledge that is given.

The organisation of the French primary school is readily described, as the principle upon which every school in France is organised is the division into three "courses"—Elementary, for children from seven to nine years of age; Intermediate, for children between nine and eleven years; and the Superior Course, for those over eleven. This last is generally missing in the rural school. The time-table of every fully organised French primary school is as follows:—

ELEMENTARY COURSE.

MORNING.

- 8.30 to 9—Moral or Civic Instruction.
- 9 to 9.30—Reading.
- 9.30 to 10—Arithmetic or Metric System.
- 10 to 10.15—Recess.
- 10.15 to 11—French.
- 11 to 11.30—Writing.

AFTERNOON.

- I to 1.30—History or Geography.
- 1.30 to 2—Reading.
- 2 to 2.30—Drawing, Manual Instruction, Military Exercises.
- 2.30 to 2.45—Recess.
- 2.45 to 3.15—Writing.
- 3.15 to 4—Object Lessons and Singing.

MIDDLE AND ADVANCED COURSES.

MORNING.

- 8.30 to 9—Moral or Civic Instruction.
 9 to 10—Arithmetic, Metric System, Geometry.
 10 to 10.15—Recess.
 10.15 to 11—French.
 11 to 11.30—Writing (mid. course), Composition (advanced course).

AFTERNOON.

- 1 to 2—History or Geography.
 2 to 2.30—Reading, Recitation.
 2.30 to 2.45—Recess.
 2.45 to 3.30—Drawing, Singing, Manual Training, or Composition.
 3.30 to 4—Physical and Natural Sciences, Agriculture and Horticulture.

This programme is modified to some extent for small country (ungraded) schools; for example, the time-table of a small school in the department of Calvados is as follows:—

LOWER CLASS.

MORNING.

- 8 to 8.30—Lecture.
 8.30 to 8.45—Récitation.
 8.45 to 9.15—Exercice de Grammaire.
 9.15 to 9.30—Morale (4 days) ou Instruction civique (1 day).
 9.30 to 10—Chant (3 days) (ou Gymnastique, 2 days) et Récréation.
 10 to 10.30—Leçon de choses (3 days) ou Système métrique (2 days).
 10.30 to 11—Dictée (3 days) ou Exercice d'Invention (*i.e.*, story made up by children).

AFTERNOON.

- 1 to 1.30—Lecture.
 1.30 to 2.15—Calcul.
 2.15 to 2.30—Écriture.
 2.30 to 2.45—Récréation.
 2.45 to 3.15—Histoire (3 days) ou Géographie (2 days).
 3.15 to 3.30—Exercice de Vocabulaire.
 3.30 to 4—Dessin (3 days) ou Écriture (2 days).

UPPER CLASS.

MORNING.

- 8 to 8.30—Morale ou Instruction civique.
 8.30 to 9—Lecture.
 9 to 9.15—Correction des devoirs de Famille.
 9.15 to 9.45—Grammaire (lundi), Pêche et Navigation (mardi), Science (jeudi), Récitation (2 days).
 9.45 to 10—Récréation.
 10 to 11—Dictée ou Redaction.

AFTERNOON.

- 1 to 2.30—Calcul (3 days), Dessin ou Travail manuel (1 day), et Écriture (1 day).
 2.30 to 2.45—Récréation.
 2.45 to 3—Chant (3 days), Gymnastique (2 days).
 3 to 3.30—Science (1 day), ou Géographie (2 days), ou Histoire (2 days).
 3.30 to 4—Copie ou Carte.

The feature of the curriculum is the attempt made to meet the needs of life in the school. To this end have been introduced manual training, cottage gardening and agriculture, civic instruction, and now it is proposed to add temperance

instruction. The instruction in civics is intended to make intelligent citizens ; thus, boys of from seven to nine years of age are made acquainted by informal talks with such ideas as law, justice, public opinion, citizen, army, soldier, etc. This instruction is extended to ideas of civil right and liberty, communal and civil obligations, etc., when the boy reaches the middle *cours*. In the top *cours* the teacher gives full discussions on the various political institutions of France.

It is now generally admitted that the attempt at early specialising has been a mistake. The teaching in agriculture has not stopped the rural exodus, the manual training has not curtailed the manufacture of clerks, and the civic instruction does not appear to have increased the loyalty of young France to existing political institutions.

Lastly, the school and life are as far from each other in France as they are elsewhere. It is a revolution of curriculum that will alone bring these together. Dethrone the three R's, and bring nature into the school, and all will be well. "The final results of the education I want you to give your children," said Ruskin, "will be, in a few words, this : They will know what it is to see the sky ; they will know what it is to breathe it ; and they will know, best of all, what it is to behave under it, as in the presence of a Father who is in heaven."

The school session is for six hours daily, with a full day's holiday on Thursday. Country schools, however, may be shut for two months annually, besides the usual holidays, so that children may be utilised on the land. Promotions take place annually, and are made with the sanction of the primary inspector. Every child, when he enters school for the first time, is given a blank book called the *cahier*, in which he enters every new exercise he performs. Thus, a complete record of his school career and progress is kept. When the inspector visits the school, as he does twice annually, he initials these books, which thus become official records, and are used for classifying the child when he changes schools. These books are naturally highly prized, and carefully preserved by the children.

It should be mentioned that although all French classes are organised on the Three-course System, in large well-staffed schools, as those of Paris, the courses are divided into sections, and children are promoted annually from one section

to the other. The French, like other, rural schools suffer from bad attendance, early age of withdrawal, poor quality of staff, meagre curriculum, and an unsympathetic environment. Most of the children leave at eleven years of age and attend very irregularly even up to that age. Singing is taught by ear only; manual training and drawing are omitted, and the needlework is poor. The teachers are often untrained. Bigotry and intolerance are rampant in French rural life, and too often secure for the public officer an unenviable lot.

The attendance of children at school is not so satisfactory as is usually supposed. A register of attendance appears to be generally kept, but this is not used for determining the regularity of attendance of the children.¹ The test applied for this purpose is that every five years two days are selected, the one in the period of maximum and the other in the period of minimum attendance, and the number of children present in school on these days counted and compared with the number of children enrolled.² The method is by no means satisfactory, even when every precaution is taken to choose normal days and normal conditions.

It was found that for every thousand pupils of the annual enrolment there were present on the dates specified :—³

Nature of Schools.	Dec. 7, 1891.	June 7, 1892.	Dec. 7, 1886.	June 7, 1887.
Public	786	719	801	720
Private	865	849	879	866

Later data still show no improvement. On December 5, 1896, the attendance was, in the public schools, 78.7 per cent., and in the private schools 85.1 per cent.; in June 1897 the respective figures were 73.2 and 84.1 per cent. of the total annual enrolment. So that, as a matter of fact, the attendance in French schools is neither satisfactory nor improving. That the facts are so is recognised by all who are acquainted

¹ See Levasseur, *L'Enseignement primaire dans les Pays civilisés*, p. 83.

² This is the usual system adopted on the Continent.

³ If the number of children enrolled at the time the census was taken is made the standard, the percentage attendance is raised considerably.

with the conditions of education in rural France. The School Attendance Committees (*Commissions scolaires*) are failures. They have had the clergy and public opinion against them, and their own enthusiasm for education is not above suspicion.

Poor parents may withdraw their children from school for three months annually on the score of poverty.

In Paris the attendance of children is very much better than in the provinces, that of the boys reaching 92 per cent. of the number enrolled, and that of the girls 91 per cent.; but here again the value of these figures depends upon the conditions of calculation.

Of the estimated number of children under six years of age 1,348,443 attend school, so that the French system of infant schools is by no means so comprehensive as the English system.

The number and growth of the maternal schools and kindergarten are shown in the following table, which also illustrates the competition of the public and private schools:—

MATERNAL SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTEN.

—	1885-86.	1890-91.	1895-96.
Number of Schools	6,096	5,340	5,646
Public	3,721	2,616	2,589
Private	2,375	2,724	3,057
Number of Teachers...	9,224	8,686	9,300
Number of Pupils—			
In Public Maternal Schools ...	543,893	465,333	450,422
In Private Maternal Schools ...	217,853	244,246	269,698

The French Teacher.—All teachers in the public schools are civil servants. Since 1890 their salaries have been paid on a fixed scale by the State. Before 1881 teachers were licensed not only by the State, but also by ecclesiastical bodies. To-day the profession is almost entirely secularised, and only lay persons may become teachers.

The following figures show, however, that this statement requires considerable qualification. (*C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. 778):—

—	1885-86.	1890-91.	1894-95.
Kind of Teachers—			
(a) In Public Schools—			
Secular Men Teachers ...	52,572	54,783	56,419
Ecclesiastical Men Teachers ...	2,832	1,263	9
Secular Women Teachers ...	28,562	34,259	38,814
Ecclesiastical Women Teachers	14,009 ¹	10,967	9,920
(b) In Private Schools—			
Secular Men Teachers ...	1,976	1,451	1,311
Ecclesiastical Men Teachers ...	6,269	7,974	9,647
Secular Women Teachers ...	6,928	6,285	5,683
Ecclesiastical Women Teachers	23,831	26,768	29,110

Teachers may be divided into three grades, corresponding to three diplomas granted after examination, or into two classes, *Stagiaires*, partially qualified, and *Titulaires*, fully qualified teachers. The first examination which the intending teacher has to take is that for the *Brevet élémentaire*. This, the official regulations state, should not in any case go beyond the mean of the courses of study of the highest class in the primary school. The subjects of examination are Dictation, Writing, French Composition, and Elementary Arithmetic, together with an oral examination in Reading, Arithmetic, Geography, and History of France; Civic Instruction, Music, and Science. Candidates must be at least sixteen years of age. Half marks will qualify for a pass. Those who pass are entitled to teach as *Probationers* or *Stagiaires*, subject to the approval of the inspector. At present about 20 per cent. of the total teaching force is made up of teachers so qualified, but a recent law has fixed the future limit at 10 per cent. These teachers are also qualified to sit for the entrance examination to training colleges. All candidates for this entrance examination must hold the *Brevet*

¹ When the public primary school was secularised by the law of 1886, it was decreed that all teachers should be "lay" persons; a period of five years was allowed for this to be effected in the case of boys' schools, and in the case of girls, after the death or retirement of the teachers; hence

élémentaire. The Academy Inspector investigates the history of each candidate, and writes a short account of each to the Rector before the examination begins. These facts are considered in selecting the candidates, but the selection is, as a rule, in order of merit. One of the training colleges, that at Montbéliard, is reserved for Protestants. Many of them are very small, and there is a tendency at present to diminish the number and consolidate them. The accommodation is sufficient to supply the annual vacancies in the French teaching staff. Indeed the supply is inadequate; many training colleges are far from full, and the inspectors are filling the schools with untrained teachers. Only seven-tenths of all the men and six-tenths of all the women teachers have been trained.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

	1885-86.	1890-91.	1895-96.
Normal Schools for Men	88	88	85
With Students	5,448	3,941	3,930
Normal Schools for Women	77	86	85
With Students	3,490	3,550	3,926

There are also two Higher Training Colleges—one for men at St. Cloud, and one for women at Fontenoy-aux-Roses, intended to supply the ranks of professors for the training colleges. The colleges are free and secular; they are entirely supported and controlled by the State. The course of training extends over three years. The students are taught military exercises and the use of the rifle. In no country perhaps in the world are the schools so influenced, one might say controlled, by the military spirit as in France. The day's routine of the training college is irksome and arduous. From five in the morning until half-past nine at night the work continues. Nothing is done as a rule to foster organised games of any kind, but billiard-tables and chess-boards are the chief means of recreation.¹ Candidates who enter a training-college have to agree to serve for eleven years as teachers. All students are taught manual skill at the forge and carpenter's

¹ Cf., however, Brereton, *ibid.*, p. 71.

bench ; and they make teaching models for themselves, which they take away with them for future use at the end of their three years' training. Cottage gardening is also taught. A chemical laboratory, too, is generally attached to the training college, as is also a practising school, the head-master of which is also the master of method. Sixty half-days are annually devoted to practical teaching for two of the three years. In the colleges for women, beside the usual subjects, are taught needlework, housework, gardening, gymnastics, and vocal and instrumental music.

At the end of the three years' course the next examination is taken—namely, that for the *Brevet supérieur*. This examination is not confined to training-college students ; but whereas they enter free, outsiders have to pay an entrance fee of 10 francs. The examination consists of two parts, written and oral. The written subjects are :—Arithmetic and Geometry ; Physical and Natural Science and their applications ; French Composition ; Model Drawing ; Composition in a modern language with the help of a lexicon ; the oral : Education and Moral Instruction ; French Language ; Geography and History (especially of France) ; Arithmetic and Bookkeeping ; Science ; a modern language. To pass, some marks must be obtained in each subject. However, it is not vital to pass at all, as a failure does not incapacitate the student for appointment, and, as a matter of fact, a large proportion of training college students do not pass this examination. The higher certificate is necessary for appointment as an inspector or training-college professor. As we shall see later on, the vast majority of French primary teachers only hold the *Brevet élémentaire*.

To qualify as a “principal,” or full teacher (*Titulaire*), however, the French teacher must pass a further examination. This is a purely professional examination, and is the *Certificat d'Aptitude pédagogique*. Candidates must be twenty-one years of age, they must hold the *Brevet élémentaire*, and have had two years' experience in teaching in a training college or a primary school. The examination consists of a written test in pedagogy, and a practical examination. The practical examination consists in conducting the work of a class or school for three hours, in accordance with a programme supplied twenty-four hours previously. This examination is conducted by a commission consisting of two or three

inspectors and one teacher. Only about half the candidates are successful.¹

A characteristic of the French primary system is the number of special teachers employed, such as teachers for Manual Instruction, Drawing, Gymnastics, Military Exercises, Singing, and Needlework. All these have special examinations to pass in order to qualify themselves.

Promotion throughout the whole service is entirely by merit, and not by seniority. All the higher branches, such as professors of training colleges, teachers of higher primary schools, and inspectors, are filled by the promotion of those elementary teachers who have qualified themselves by examination for these positions, and have shown an aptitude for the duties.

Finally, the French teacher possesses absolute security of tenure, and his social status ranks next to that of the mayor, whose secretary he generally is. He has no compulsory extraneous duties to perform, and, like his German brother, he may not take up outside duties. The State considers that he should, like the priest, keep aloof from worldly matters. Unfortunately, the salary does not conduce to such sublime serenity, and his physical needs compel him to become a political agitator. Indeed, it is said that the primary teacher in all lands is pre-eminently *the* political agitator. One might imagine that the school was the storm-centre, and the teacher the petrel of politics. Baron de Coubertin, in his *Notes sur l'éducation publique*, p. 21, is convinced that the real problem before the primary school to-day is not a religious one but a political one. He points out that in democratic communities the teachers are bound to increase in number and power. They are the leaders of the people, and are looked up to by both

¹ The proportion of teachers possessed of the same increases, as shown by this table:—

FRANCE AND ALGIERS.

	Men having Full Title.		Women having Full Title.	
	1888.	1893.	1888.	1893.
Principals	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
In charge of Schools ...	19.4	30.3	9.8	18.4
	46.0	49.0	24.2	25.1

pupils and parents. The teacher leads the vanguard of civilisation. Unfortunately, his salary is small, although the State is doing what it can for him. The large number of teachers makes any financial improvement exceedingly difficult, hence the teacher becomes an agitator. M. Levasseur is still more emphatic. In many districts the teachers have become active political agents, being predisposed to this by their training and ambition. The teacher endeavours to secure promotion by political rather than pedagogic services, and consequently alienates the sympathy of some portion or other of the local community. Matters would improve were the appointment of head teachers in the hands of the University authorities, say the Academy Inspector, rather than in those of the Prefect. (*L'Enseignement primaire*, p. 67.)

All French teachers are paid by the State, but the local authority, the commune, may supplement the salary, and also has to provide a dwelling or its monetary equivalent, as fixed by the State, to each teacher. The salaries are paid on the following scale.

Principal or fully qualified teachers are divided into three groups—Elementary, Higher Primary, and Normal. Each group is further divided into five classes, with annual salaries fixed as follows:—

	Primary Schools.		Higher Primary Teachers.	Normal Schools.	
	Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.
Fifth Class	... £40	£40	£72	£140	£120
Fourth Class	... 48	48	80	160	140
Third Class	... 60	56	90	180	160
Second Class	... 72	60	100	200	180
First Class	... 80	64	112	220	200

The principal of a school of three or four classes is allowed a further sum of £8 per annum, and of a school of more than four classes £16 per annum.

Promotion from one class to another depends, not upon the school, but upon the efficiency and length of service of the teacher, and can only take place when there is a vacancy in the class above. Teachers of the fifth and fourth classes can only be promoted after five years' service. For promotion to

the second and first classes the teacher must hold the *Brevet supérieur*, and have served at least three years in the preceding class. However, length of service is allowed to count in this way:—All teachers who have served ten years are eligible for the fifth class; if the service is for fifteen years, then the teacher is eligible for the fourth class; if twenty years, for the third class; and twenty-five years, for the second class. The proportion of teachers in each class is fixed—viz., Probationers, 10 per cent.; fifth class, 20; fourth class, 25; third class, 25; second class, 15; first class, 5.

Assistant teachers (*Stagiaires*) in the primary schools are paid £36 per annum, and assistant teachers in the higher primary schools are paid £44 to £84 per annum.¹

All teachers are entitled to pensions after thirty years' service, or at fifty-five to sixty years of age (if they have been fifteen years in the *partie active* they may retire at fifty-eight). This pension must not be under £24 for male teachers, and £20 for female. It depends upon salary and length of service, with a maximum of three-fourths of the salary, and passes in part to the widow and orphans in case of death.

There appears to be at present a dearth in the supply of French teachers, of which the causes have been summarised as follows:—

1. Insufficient salary.
2. Low commencing salary.
3. Immoderately long probationary stage, and slowness of promotion.
4. Compulsory military service (enforced since 1889).
5. Ten years' engagement, now increased to eleven years.
6. Suppression of all accessory gains, excepting that of Secretary to the Mayor.
7. Increase of extraneous duties.²
8. Political and other servitude, and consequent insecurity of tenure.

¹ The master of a rural boys' school may be assisted by his wife, mother, or sister. Under certain circumstances the departmental council may allow a master to take charge of a "mixed" school—i.e., a school attended by boys and girls—but in such a case a special teacher for needlework must be provided.

² The extraneous duties are presumably:—

1. Secretary to the Mayor; for this special payment is received.
2. Evening continuation work.
3. Special "coaching" of pupils for *Certificat d'Etudes*.

In 1896 the army of French teachers was as follows:—

—	Men.	Women.	Total.
Public Schools ...	55,933	48,482	104,415
Private Schools ...	10,920	35,056	45,976
Totals ...	66,853	83,538	150,391

Of this army the qualifications were:—

Schools, 1896.	Inferior Diploma (Brevet élémentaire).	Superior Diploma (Brevet supérieur).	No Diploma.
Public—			
Men	39,469	16,369	95
Women	32,529	13,426	2,527
Total	71,998	29,795	2,622
Grand Total	104,415	
Private—			
Men	9,504	667	749
Women	25,581	3,915	5,560
Total	35,085	4,582	6,309
Grand Total	45,976	

Male teachers in the public schools with no diploma generally possess a substitute in the university bachelor's degree, which, however, it must be remembered, is hardly the equivalent of an English university degree, and may be taken at sixteen years of age.

Finally, a word must be said as to the sufficiency of the staff. A simple calculation will show that the extraordinary overcrowding and understaffing of the Prussian school are unknown in France. In Prussia there are from 15 to 20 more children for every teacher than in France. Of course, cases of understaffing are by no means unknown in France, and

classes of over 100 children to one teacher are occasionally heard of.

The growth of the system has been remarkably uniform. In 1881-82 the total number of children enrolled in the primary schools was 5,341,211, of whom 3,567,861 were in secular (public and private) schools; in 1895-96 the total number enrolled was 5,533,511, of whom 3,898,806 were in secular schools. In 1887-88 the total number of teachers was 141,063, of whom 76,432 were women; in 1896 the total number was 150,391, of whom 83,538 were women. Again, of the teachers in 1891-92, the number who possessed the lower or inferior diploma was 107,881, and only 27,339 held the superior diploma; in 1896 the holders of inferior diplomas were 107,083, and the possessors of the superior diploma had risen to 34,377. Here, as elsewhere, the private school has proportionately a less highly qualified staff than the public school. Thus in the public schools in 1896 there were 71,998 teachers with inferior, and 29,795 with superior diplomas; in the private schools, however, the respective numbers were 35,085 and 4,582. The number of school libraries has increased from 26,251 in 1881, to 41,498 in 1897.

It must not be concluded that because changes are so frequent in the school authority in Paris the schools have therefore suffered from rapid and extreme variations in curricula. On the contrary, every change, before being introduced, has been thoroughly sifted, tested, and discussed. The Minister of Education is surrounded by the first experts of the country, and his decisions are governed by their opinions. Every precaution is taken to avoid failure and to make the proposed change a success. Elaborate and minute directions are issued, and these are the result of the accumulated experience and science of experts. In no country in the world probably are the official instructions so suggestive, so lucid, and so helpful. They have the defects of their qualities: the French teacher is often helpless without his official programme.

The system as it stands to-day is an admirable expression of the French genius. It is logical, it is comprehensive, and, for the purpose set before it, it is efficient. One may quarrel with that purpose, but to do so is largely to quarrel with French ideals. The school is turning out French citizens of the type needed by the Republic; whether that type is the best fitted for life is another matter. It may be indeed, as French writers

point out, that it is this training that makes bad colonists ; these French citizens have not been trained to resourcefulness, to self-help, to independence of character. They must lean on something—either the public functionary or official regulations. However, that is not the immediate matter for discussion. We are considering the school as a machine for the production of citizens.

Let us conclude with the following fine appreciation of the French system by a brilliant young Englishman—who died all too young for the good cause—which may fitly close this brief account of the essential features of the French system of training citizens :—

“To sum up, then, we may say that the pedagogic centre of gravity in Europe has shifted from Germany to France. By bringing education as a whole under the control of the State, and making it an integral and independent department in the Government ; by training the teacher, and by making his promotion depend on professional service and skill ; by avoiding the iniquitous inequality of incomes as it exists in England between the head-master and the assistants, and thus making life more possible for the rank and file of the profession ; by freeing the teacher from tutelage, and awakening in him a sense of the national importance of his task ; by adopting the democratic principle that the governed should choose their own representatives ; by courageously eliminating from the school the differences of religious bodies, and by putting therein the morality common to them all ; by her readiness generally in showing strangers the best she has, so that education, like science, may be a generous donor to all without distinction of nationality, France has earned the gratitude of all advanced minds in the civilised world.” (H. W. Widgery, *C.R.*, 1889-90, p. 118.)

CHAPTER VI.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Après nous le déluge. After the logical consistency, the perfect symmetry, the practical effectiveness, the national comprehensiveness of the French system, we come to the American system—the most prominent characteristic of which is admittedly the lack of system. Strictly speaking, there is no national system of education, yet in many respects no system of education is more truly popular and national than that of America. It is particularly difficult for a European (least so for an Englishman), accustomed as he is to State help and control, to appreciate the fine points of American education. Its finest characteristics are spiritual and intangible, and cannot be classified or quantified. An American educator writes: “It is of course difficult for one not familiar with American institutions and American ways to understand or appreciate the American school system. To him it seems anything but a system. It is a product of conditions in a new land, and it is adapted to those conditions. It is at once expressive of the American spirit, and it is energising, culturing, and ennobling that spirit. It is settling down to an orderly and symmetrical institution. It is becoming scientific, and it is doing its work efficiently. It exerts a telling influence upon every person in the land, and is proving that it is supplying an education broad enough and of a kind to support free institutions.” (Draper, *A.E.*, p. 31.)

It is exceedingly difficult to describe briefly the administration of education in America. The greatest variety prevails. “Spontaneity is the keynote of education in the United States. Its varied form, its uneven progress, its lack of symmetry, its practical ineffectiveness, are all due to the fact that it has sprung unbidden and unforced from the needs and aspirations of the people. Local preference and individual initiative have

been ruling forces. What men have wished for, that they have done. They have not waited for State assistance or for State control." (*Butler, A.E.*, vii.)

Education is considered, or was considered, to be a local matter, not a national matter. It was the duty of the local community to educate its future citizens. The true historical unit which persists to the present day in American education is the school district, which consists of the area that supplies the school with children. The legal voters of that district together form the electorate for school purposes, and in public meeting appoint representatives to administer the affairs of the school. The number of such school districts is, of course, enormous; there are over twelve thousand of them in New York State alone. In the Southern States, the local unit of school administration was from the earliest days, and owing to historical causes, the county. The advantages of consolidating these numerous school districts were of course obvious, and thus arose what is known as the "township" system, in which we have larger areas containing more and larger schools. This system, too, of course lends itself to the establishment of public secondary schools.

The feeling of local independence, however, is very strong, and the "district" system is still predominant. Besides, local pride and independence, too often indeed purely personal motives, have helped to maintain the small, inefficient school. The number of these small schools is very large, and absolutely prejudicial to the best interests of education. As the need of increased education pressed more heavily upon the local community, they began to turn towards the central power, the State, for help; and the principle of State help and control has gradually become recognised as possible in America. Even to day, however, the authority of the State officers over the local authorities is in many of the States confined to collecting and publishing statistics and delivering occasional lectures. In other States, however, the authority of the State Superintendent of Education is very great; for example, the State Superintendent for New York "apportions the State school funds; he determines the conditions of admission, the courses of work and the employment of teachers, and audits all the accounts of the twelve normal schools of the State; he has unlimited authority over the examination and certification of teachers; he regulates the official action of the school

commissioners in all of the assembly districts of the State. He appoints the teachers' institutes, arranges the work, names the instructors, and pays the bills. He determines the boundaries of school districts. He provides schools for the defective classes, and for the seven Indian reservations yet remaining in the State. He may condemn school-houses, and require new ones to be built. He may direct new furnishings to be provided. He is a member of the State Board of regents, and of the trustees of Cornell University. He may entertain appeals by any person conceiving himself aggrieved from any order or proceeding of local school officials, determine the practice therein, and make final disposition of the matter in dispute, and his decision cannot be called in question in any court or in any other place." (Draper, *A.E.*, p. 20.)

The county system of the South, and the city school systems generally, require some further remarks.

The County Boards of Education are constituted in diverse ways. In Georgia the grand jury selects from the freeholders five persons to act as the County Board; in North Carolina the county justices and commissioners nominate the Education Board. In Florida the County Board is elected directly by the people every two years. In other States a County Superintendent is appointed to carry on the work of the school. He fixes the sites, selects the text-books, examines and appoints the teachers, and prescribes the curricula of the schools in the county.

The same extreme diversity is found in the administration of city school systems. "In the greater number of cities the Boards of Education are elected by the people, in some cases on a general city ticket, and again by wards or sub-districts; in some cases at a general or municipal election, and in others at elections held for the particular purpose. But in many cities, and particularly the larger ones, the Boards are appointed by the mayor alone, or by the mayor and city council acting jointly. In the city of Philadelphia the Board is appointed by the city judges, in Pittsburg by local directors, and in New Orleans by the State Board of Education." (Draper, *A.E.*, p. 12.)

The city Boards may do everything except decide what amount shall be spent annually on education; occasionally, however, they even have that power. They erect buildings,

appoint teachers, fix salaries,¹ and generally control the whole system of schools in the city. Past experience of these city school boards has not bred unlimited confidence in them amongst the people. They are generally seized upon as legitimate fields for enterprise by the political boss, and the efficiency of the school has too often been sacrificed to the greed of the politician. "Spoils to the victors," cry they—there is a clean motto for every dirty crime. There is no need to use strong language on this point; Americans themselves do that.

All American educators confess with indignant eloquence this barefaced robbery of the child, and there can be no doubt that the people themselves are beginning to see how fearfully they are being victimised by unscrupulous demagogues. Throughout the States at the present time there is evidence of the awakening, there is an earnest endeavour to remove the school from the effects of popular caprice and change.

"The Milwaukee device removes the schools further from the people than any which has preceded it. The people elect the mayor, the mayor appoints the commission, the commission appoints the board, the board elects the superintendent, the superintendent selects the principals, the principals select the teachers, and the teachers teach the school." (*C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 1492.)

A still more drastic revolution than this is the replacing of the elected boards, which, it may be noted, are very capricious in size, by an appointed small board of experts paid for the work, and devoting the whole of their time and energy to it. In San Francisco the City Board now consists of four officials, paid £600 per annum, and devoting the whole of their time to the work. The City Superintendent is elected directly by the people, but he has no vote on this Board of Education.² Washington, too, now has paid members. This

¹ This is generally true; but Principal Salmon tells us that "while I was in New York the State legislature passed a law regulating the salaries to be paid to the teachers in the city of New York. To a foreigner it seems curious that an outside authority should come between employers and employed. The probable effect of the new law will be to increase the size of the classes, for the Board, compelled to pay more to each individual, will try to keep down the total payment by reducing the number of individuals."

² This experiment has not proved so far a success. A good deal of friction between the Superintendent and the Board has already occurred.

introduction of the expert as administrator is the beginning of bureaucracy, and alien to the democratic ideal. Government by experts is always thorough, but the thoroughness is paid for at too great a price. Public opinion, however, is rapidly veering round to the necessity of some revolutionary change in the present system of administration. It is felt on all hands that until the school can be wrenched from the hands of the jobber, education must suffer. (See Appendix A.)

The Federal Government has nothing to do with popular education, except in these ways :—

1. It maintains at Washington the Bureau of the Commissioner of Education, which has become the great clearing-house of the educational world. Valuable reports on foreign systems of education are compiled and largely circulated, and statistics on American education published. What this Bureau has done for education throughout the civilised world it is impossible to estimate.

2. It provides for popular education in Alaska.

3. Large grants of land, etc., are occasionally made to the different States for the furtherance of education.

The extraordinary diversity of effort in the educational life of America is not without interest and significance. The people have to solve a problem which has never been solved before—namely, how to maintain high efficiency without the stimulus of an external authority. Whether they will be able to do so at all is a moot point. However, they are no imitators of Europe in this matter, and whatever solution may be ultimately arrived at, it is certain to be novel and national.

It may further be observed that the situation is most promising, the heart is sound, and the people themselves are intensely in earnest. They believe in their schools, and are determined to make them the best in the world. With such a spirit, much can be accomplished.

School Laws.—In comparing the United States of America with European countries, one is apt to overlook the fact that each State is, at any rate in educational matters, a sovereign independent State, and that consequently the basis of a strict comparison with the United States of America would be the federated states of Europe. In that case, Americans might reasonably say that the proper area of comparison for Kentucky or Carolina is not Germany but Spain, not France but Italy.

In the matter of the laws of school attendance and child-

labour, the greatest variety prevails amongst the various States. Thus we find that compulsory attendance laws are on the statute books of 30 States, 1 territory, and the District of Columbia; whilst 16 States and 1 territory have no laws upon the subject. Then the laws for compulsory attendance, when in existence, vary considerably. Thus the age of compulsory attendance is for most States from 8 to 14; but it is—

8-15 years for Maine and Washington;

8-16 in New Hampshire, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, and New Mexico;

7-12 in New Jersey;

7-13 in Wisconsin;

7-14 in Massachusetts, Kentucky, and Illinois;

7-15 in Rhode Island;

7-16 in Wyoming.

The number of days that a child must attend to comply with the law is very variable. In Massachusetts and Connecticut the child must attend every time the school is open, with a minimum of 30 weeks if school is open so long; if not, then 20 weeks. In New York and Rhode Island the conditions are similar, but certain relaxations of the law are allowed for children who work. In California the child must make two-thirds of the possible attendances, and in Pennsylvania 70 per cent. of the same.

The law is complied with by an attendance of 20 weeks per annum in Vermont, New Jersey, Ohio, and Utah; by 16 weeks in Maine, West Virginia, Illinois, Michigan, and Nevada; and by 12 weeks only in New Hampshire, District of Columbia, Idaho, Washington, Indiana, Kansas, Wisconsin, North and South Dakota, Nebraska, and New Mexico. In Kentucky 8 weeks per annum is the demand. The fine for non-compliance varies for the first offence from 1 to 25 dollars, which is increased for subsequent offences, and occasionally may end in imprisonment.

These requirements are remarkably low, when compared with the 40 weeks of the German, French, and English school; but in some parts of rural America, especially in the more remote parts, the school is in many respects closely similar to the ambulatory schools of Northern Europe, where much the same conditions prevail.

"The rural schools in sparsely settled districts still continue their old practice of holding a winter school with a session of

60 to 80 days only, and taught by the makeshift teacher who works at some other employment for two-thirds of the year." (Harris, *A.E.*, p. 80.)

As a matter of fact, even in those States where compulsory laws exist, they are rarely put into force, and we even hear of State officials publicly stating that the existence of such laws was unknown to many people.¹ Children leave school long before they are entitled to do so. In many States quite half leave before they are eleven years of age, and three-fourths before they have reached the top class of the elementary school. In many of the largest of American cities there is a very cogent reason why the compulsory law is not enforced; for, where the school accommodation is so inadequate that half-day schools have to be organised to meet the requirements of those who come voluntarily, there is no room for a law to compel the unwilling. It is appalling to think that the city of New York annually spends a quarter of a million pounds more upon its police than upon its schools, but it can hardly be wondered at when the fearful inadequacy of school accommodation in that empire-city is considered. A governor of New York State publicly affirmed that thousands of children in the large cities of America are growing up absolutely destitute of a school education.²

- The weak feature of most of these State laws of compulsory attendance is that, as a rule, it appears to be nobody's special

¹ See Levasseur, *L'Enseignement primaire*, p. 363.

² The Superintendent of Schools for the city of New York thus writes in his annual report for 1893-94:—"The new truant law is not perfect, yet it is much better than the old one. It will need to be revised in some particulars to become well adapted to its purposes. It is new, and to some may seem arbitrary and offensive, yet its aims are right, and should be wisely and honestly supported. It may be made ineffective and odious without the hearty co-operation of each community, or by unwise execution of its provisions. School districts (cities in particular) must first place themselves in proper conditions to provide for its enforcement before all its functions can be fully exercised. It is folly to attempt to compel children to go to school unless there are ample school accommodations. It is a notorious and lamentable fact that in some of our large cities the school accommodations are far short of the capacity that is demanded by those seeking admission voluntarily. This is the greatest hindrance to the immediate enforcement of the Truant Act. The remedy can be obtained only by furnishing additional school room. It seems not only equitable, but necessary, that steps be taken to supply such deficiency, and that as promptly as possible. School accommodations are, as a general rule, by no means commensurate

business to enforce them. It is sometimes the school trustees as in Idaho, the school boards in Michigan, the police in New Jersey, clerk of the Board of Education or district trustees in California, the presidents of school boards and boards of education in North Dakota, and truant officers in Ohio. Of late years some of the States have taken the matter of the non-enforcement of the school law seriously in hand, and have appointed special truant officers, and organised truant schools.

For the year 1898-99 the average attendance for all the States of the children enrolled was 68.6 per cent. This average attendance varies much for different States: we will select a number:—

Maine	74.23	per cent.
New York	72.03	"	
Connecticut	72.66	"	
Maryland	57.86	"	
North Carolina	53.06	"	
South Carolina	72.03	"	
Georgia	56.58	"	
Tennessee	70.57	"	
Arkansas	61.77	"	
California	80.20	"	
Illinois	76.90	"	

The whole of the figures vary between those for North Carolina and California.

Further, whereas the primary school of England, France, and Germany is open generally for at least 200 days per annum, the number of days that the average American school is open was in 1898-99 143.2 days. This annual period of schooling is slowly lengthening; thus it was in—

1870-71	132.1	days.
1879-80	130.3	"
1889-90	134.7	"

with the demands of cities at any time, for the reason that provisions are not made in time to meet and keep pace with their constant and rapid growth. Growth in school population should be anticipated somewhat, and school buildings provided beforehand. A liberal, well-regulated plan can remedy this constant lack of school room in large cities, and I think that the legislature should enact laws to compel more prompt action in some of our municipalities in furnishing ample and proper school buildings for all their children. Until the necessary accommodations are provided, the present law cannot be adequately and justly enforced." (C.R., 1893-94, p. 1,411.)

The period varies enormously. In the large cities European conditions prevail, but in the rural districts the school period is very short. We again select some typical figures, giving for each State the average number of days that the school was open in 1898-99:—

Maine	126.0	days.
Connecticut	189.15	"
North Carolina	68.3	"
Arkansas	70.0	"
Utah	151.0	"
Massachusetts	188.0	"
Rhode Island	187.0	"
New York	177.0	"

Finally, we quote figures showing for different States the average number of days that each pupil enrolled on the books attended school in 1898-99; for the whole of the United States the average was 98.3 days:—

Massachusetts	143.5	days.
Connecticut	137.4	"
Rhode Island	135.4	"
New York	132.2	"
Virginia	67.5	"
North Carolina	36.3	"
South Carolina	59.9	"
Arkansas	43.3	"
California	131.2 ¹	"

It has been calculated that if all schools, public and private, primary and secondary, are taken into account, then each

¹ "The length of the school year in Prussia (and possibly in France) is almost uniformly $10\frac{1}{2}$ months or about 250 school days (exclusive of holidays and vacations), while in the United States it varies between 60 and 196 days, with an average of 135 days. This obvious difference alone puts the American school at a disadvantage, but this is not all. It is not only that in Germany the number of school days is greater, but that the school day is considerably longer than in the United States. It is a simple example of multiplication, to wit:

"With us a school day is, at various places and during different seasons, from 5 to $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours long, which amounts to 980 to 1,078 hours a year. The German child, on the other hand, has 4 days of 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours each, and 2 days of 4 hours each in every week of the school year. This amounts to from 1,323 to 1,406 hours in a year. Or to take average numbers: In the United States the child is under the influence of school during 1,029 hours a year; the German child is under that influence 1,364 hours, or about one-third more than the American child." (C.R., 1888-89, p. 60.)

individual pupil in the United States receives on an average nearly five years' schooling, where each year consists of 200 school days. That is probably quite two years less than is received by the school-child of England or Germany. The actual figures are :—

For 1870	3.36	years of 200 days.
„ 1880	3.96	„ „
„ 1890	4.46	„ „
„ 1900	4.99	„ „

With reference to the laws of child-labour, considerable variety obtains here again, and we can only attempt to give the main features.

In the four following States there are laws absolutely prohibiting the employment of children under a certain specified age :—

New Hampshire	under 10	years of age.
Rhode Island	„ 12	„ „
Massachusetts	„ 14	„ „
Connecticut	„ 14	„ „

These four States, together with New York, New Jersey, Vermont, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, and North and South Dakota, have laws which permit the employment of children of a certain age only when the schools are not open, or provided they have made a certain number of attendances at school in the year.

These laws are none too liberal, and require considerable amendment to make them worthy of the American Commonwealth. Even as it is they are not rigidly enforced. A keen German critic writes :—"It is almost ludicrous to say that compulsory education is generally adopted in the United States. To understand that neglected children are not disposed to go to school, we must visit the labour quarters of cities like New York, Chicago, etc., and see the children come out of the factories." (Prof. Waetzoldt, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 562.)

The early age at which children leave school in America is not altogether due to defective legislation or pernicious social influences. The American boy, like the American people generally, is in a hurry. The atmosphere is bracing, and children mature quicker there than in Europe. Even the

question of the age of leaving school may be largely due to climatic influences. America is more bracing than England, and England than France, and France than Germany. Americans crowd much into life before they are twenty, and English boys are ruling in India at an age when the German boy is at school. To read of what Edison did before he was twenty is to understand that many matters American must indeed seem strange to a German.

The American boy and girl hear the busy hum and see the rapid changes of life from their class-room windows, and they go out into the crowd at an age when in Europe children cling to the mother's skirt and the father's hand. They are men and women at an age when in France or Germany they would be but school children.

School Finance.—The value of the national lands devoted to educational purposes by the Government of the United States is estimated at sixty million pounds. The area of this land is 134,591 square miles.

The total revenue received for educational purposes from all sources during the year 1898-99 was £40,803,522. This revenue was derived as follows:—

	Per Cent.
From the permanent funds and rents	... 4.4
From State taxes	... 17.7
From local taxes	... 70.3
From other sources	... 7.6

The total expenditure for the year 1898-99 amounted to £39,456,320, which works out at \$2.67 per head of the population. The enormous progress in school expenditure since 1870 is shown by the increase in this *per capita* expenditure.

In 1870	it was	\$1.75
" 1879-80	"	1.56
" 1889-90	"	2.24
" 1898-99	"	2.67

Of the total school expenditure we find that —

Sites and buildings absorb 16.9 per cent. of the whole.

Salaries absorb 65.2 " "

All other purposes absorb 17.9 " "

In 1870 the sum annually expended on the education of

each pupil was \$15.20, but that amount had in 1898-99 increased to \$18.99.

The figures hitherto given are those referring to the United States as a whole, but it will be interesting to observe the varying value in the various States. We shall thus be able to gauge the popular appreciation of education, and to some extent the relative efficiency in the various States.

Thus the estimated value of all public school property in 1898-99 varies between

New York with	\$75,153,615
Pennsylvania with	49,491,586
Massachusetts with (1897-98)	39,077,405
Ohio with	41,446,838
	and	
South Carolina with	\$845,596
Florida with	755,824
Nevada (1897-98) with	265,011
Arizona with	490,504

Of the amount of school revenue from permanent funds and rent of school lands, we find that Michigan annually receives over one million dollars, and Indiana, Illinois, Minnesota, and Missouri over half a million dollars; whereas New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, District of Columbia, South Carolina, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona are altogether destitute of such funds.

Again, whereas Pennsylvania enjoys over five and a half million dollars from State taxes, and New York and Texas over three million, in other States, such as Massachusetts, District of Columbia, Michigan, Iowa, South Dakota, Kansas, Wyoming, Colorado, Idaho, and Oregon, no such help is given towards the schools by the State.

We find that the amount of State and local contribution towards the maintenance of the schools varies greatly, e.g.—

Tennessee	...	81 per cent. from the State.
Texas	...	70.3 "
North Carolina	...	77.1 "
South Carolina	...	76.7 "
Maine	...	34 "
New Hampshire	...	3.9 "
Vermont	...	9 "
New York	...	12.4 "

Similarly with the amount spent for educational purposes per head of the population, which for the whole States averages \$2.67.

This varies from \$5.07 in Massachusetts,
 4.09 in California,
 4.03 in New York,
 To 0.59 in South Carolina,
 0.53 in North Carolina (1897-98),
 0.79 in Louisiana.

The amount annually spent on the education of each child in 1898-99 was, as we have seen, \$18.99 for the whole of of the States. This varies from—

Nevada (1897-98)	\$40.87
Massachusetts	38.55
Rhode Island	34.09
New York	33.03
to			
Alabama	3.59
South Carolina	3.96
Tennessee	4.62

The amount devoted to educational purposes in the more progressive States is unequalled elsewhere in the world. There is a munificent liberality apparent, which is not only evidence of the popular appreciation of education, but is pregnant with promise.

Just one or two other matters require notice. We have already observed that both in France and Prussia the urban population is, indirectly at any rate, called in to assist the rural population in providing schooling for its children. In America it may be observed that the State contribution is generally largest in those States where the rural population is the largest. But more than that, in some States, as for example in the State of New York, the cities contribute annually to the support of the schools in the rural districts. It has been estimated that over £100,000 is thus annually paid by the cities of New York State.

Again, we find that inequality in the incidence of local taxation which we observed in England equally prevalent and equally unpopular in the United States. It is the lack of funds that is the main cause of the very short school year in rural

America; the localities are often loath to provide any funds other than those provided by the central authorities.

It is interesting to note that more than half the school revenue for 1896 of the city of Omaha was derived from saloon licences.

School Buildings.—The school buildings of America generally excite the admiration of the visitor. The practical, inventive turn of mind of the people has been directed to the improvement of the building and equipment of the school. M. Levasseur speaks in high praise of the premises, which he observes may, and indeed do, serve as models for Europe to copy. Mr. Grasby, too, is emphatic in his opinion as to their general superiority over the European school, particularly as regards convenience, adaptability, and comfort. It was Michel Chevalier who said that there were three buildings indispensable to an American community—namely, the Church, the School, and the Bank. However, these opinions apply particularly to the more progressive urban centres of America. In the rural districts, as we shall see later on, the schools are often merely log cabins or hired rooms. The estimated value of these buildings shows that they cannot be described as efficient school premises. Indeed, Judge Draper, when State Superintendent for New York, had no doubt upon the matter. In his report for 1889-90 he points out that the provision of suitable school buildings is not a matter that should be left to the initiative or the intelligence of the local community. He tells us that even in the popular centres “buildings are found to be out of date, badly worn and defaced, imperfectly warmed and ventilated, poorly lighted, deficient in furnishing, wanting in appliances to do with.” And of country schools he says, “How many towns and districts have school-houses and out-buildings unfit for any use, houses which are a constant menace to health and morals, because of indifference, or because to build new ones will increase the tax rate? How many lack proper seats and desks and blackboards, and globes and maps, and all the things which contribute to the efficiency of a school?” (*C.R.*, 1889-90, p. 1,162.)

However, no good purpose is served by dwelling upon the poor school buildings of America or elsewhere. No country has a monopoly of them. The poor we shall always have with us; and the poor school building is sometimes the

best of a poor community. Until the city population recognises its duty to assist the rural community the school will suffer. A time will doubtless come when the country will be recognised as the recruiting ground of the race. Then the necessity of maintaining the efficiency of the country school will be recognised, but not before.

The American rural school is generally a wooden building, or a room specially hired for the time. Sometimes these wooden structures are elegant and suitable, at other times they are cold, damp, and ugly, so much so that school can only be held in them during the warmer and drier weather.

The teacher is hired for the season, and is generally a bird of passage. His qualifications are sometimes peculiar, nearly always poor. The length of the school year depends entirely upon the amount of funds at the disposal of the School Managers. There is no uniform set of text-books used—each child brings his own ; sometimes they do without any until Pa has been to town and purchased one. This Pa often forgets to do, and when he does not forget he generally obtains the wrong kind. However, the parents, who control the situation generally, insist upon *their* children getting individual and special instruction, and so the little school of ten or twenty children is broken up into numerous little squads, each going on its own way. Sometimes the top pupils will be dabbling in algebra, Euclid, or Latin, side by side with the “alphabetters.” Surely not much good work can be done here ; nevertheless, the pupils are all ultimately taught to read, and that in a democratic country, with its newspaper civilisation, is a distinct gain. “The transformation of an illiterate population into one that reads the daily newspaper, and perforce thinks on national and international interests, is thus far the greatest good accomplished by the free public school system of the United States.” (Harris, *A.E.*, p. 81.)

The typical urban school building of America is of two storeys with eight rooms, and with accommodation for 370 children, but in the largest cities schools affording room for over 2000 children are becoming the rule. These buildings are four storeys high, and have either only a very small playground or none at all. “In the city of New York some schools with an attendance of 2000 or 3000 pupils have not one square foot of ground for the pupils to stand on, except the public street, after making their exit from a building of several storeys.”

(Millar, *The School System of the State of New York*, p. 130.) In New York one school has a capacity of 2,722 sittings, another of 2,633 sittings. The sites of some of these New York schools cost respectively £27,000, £29,400, £31,400, and one £33,000.

In Chicago one school has accommodation for 1,320 pupils. The Chicago schools have generally 16 class-rooms and an assembly hall, which can be converted into class-rooms if necessary. They are of three storeys, six class-rooms on each of the lower storeys, and four class-rooms and the assembly hall at the top.

In Philadelphia the schools have 10, 12, up to 18 or 21 class-rooms, according to local needs. Huge schools are becoming the rule in most American cities.

Despite this fact, the deficiency of school accommodation in many of the largest of American cities is simply appalling, and we have the extraordinary spectacle of some of the richest cities in the world, such as New York, Chicago, Minneapolis, and Washington, actually resorting to the system of half-day schools, which is only tolerated in the poorest provinces of Europe.¹ In the newer city schools the ventilation is effected by fans, and they are heated by the indirect steam method. The buildings are erected on steel skeleton frames, and the lighting is generally admirable.²

¹ Of the state of things at Philadelphia the official report states:—"How long this deplorable condition is to exist appears very uncertain. The councils of our city are fully informed on the subject, and admit the great need of the board for a large sum of money, running into millions, either to provide new buildings to keep pace with the growth of population, or to replace such as are unfit for occupancy; but the financial problem stands ever in the way of the realisation of our hopes. The comparatively small appropriations that councils are able to make from time to time for the purchase of ground and the erection of new buildings, do little beyond making provision for the constant accessions to the ranks of our school population."

² However, Superintendent Dutton, in his interesting book on *Social Phases of Education*, writes:—"In our best communities we find many indications of improved sentiment respecting school architecture, but New England has been rather backward in this respect, and there are many buildings unfit for occupancy by young children."

Messrs. Burrage and Bailey assure us "it is an astounding fact to learn how many school buildings never get thoroughly cleaned. For example, during a careful study of the sanitary condition of the schools in the city of Boston a few years ago, it was found that the floors of seventy seven of the buildings, or 41 per cent. of the whole number of schools, had never been washed since laid." (*School Sanitation and Decoration*, p. 65.)

The whole school daily meet in the assembly hall to salute the national flag "Old Glory," to renew their oath of fealty to it, and to hear a chapter read from the Bible. They then file to their separate class-rooms in a very quiet and orderly manner. There is a noticeable absence of the military discipline of the European school; yet, on the whole, the discipline is considered by practically all observers to be admirable.¹ The teacher depends more upon interest and loyalty than upon authority to secure discipline.²

The vast majority of city schools possess a library; indeed, there is sometimes a separate library in each class-room. More than this, in New York and elsewhere the city public library is often located in the school building, and in many

¹ The following newspaper cutting throws a curious light on this:—"The New York correspondent of the *Morning Leader* telegraphs: 'The public school system in general, and the laxity in the supervision of school-teachers in particular, form the object of the latest serious crusade. New York and Pennsylvania teachers are paid badly and irregularly, owing to the control of the pay-rolls by negligent municipal councillors. At present the schoolmaster of Steelton, Mr. Updegraff, is under an indictment for systematically covering the children's mouths with sticking-plaster for trifling breaches of discipline. Three little girls were injured thereby. This following the case of a schoolmistress who put Cayenne pepper on the tongues of loquacious boys has aroused the indignation of parents, who are agitating for a general reform of the present defective system of primary education. Meanwhile the denominational schools are gaining astonishingly, convent and brothers' schools in particular being taxed to their utmost limit with applications from pupils of all creeds.'"

² "Any one entering the American schools is impressed with the general cleanliness, the perfect order, and the sentiment of self-respect which pervade the atmosphere. The best arrangement of rooms, of windows for light, the best means of heating and ventilating, are studied. Then there are seats, one for each pupil, revolving-chairs, slates, and blackboards, so that not more than two children work in close proximity to each other, and there is no crowding. The children by turning about on their chairs can direct their view to any part of the room. There is no need of hiding anything within the desks, and so the school, by the very arrangement of its furniture, becomes a means of forming a loyal character and of rendering the pupil alert, self-reliant, and respectful in bearing. Each school has a central room in which the classes congregate when entering and leaving. In silence and with a composed bearing children of both sexes march along. The teacher leads the march by playing on the piano and a patriotic hymn is sung, but there are no orders given as to the marching. On entering and leaving school the same method is employed; girls to the right, boys to the left, is the mode of march. The sight was one that moved me greatly, as if it were a generous action for the honouring of humanity."—Signor Commendatore Luigi Bodio, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 616.

other cities special facilities for school children are provided. The library, both school and public, is more real and effective in America than in Europe.

Pianos, too, are general in American schools. The assembly halls and class-rooms are often tastefully decorated. There is a separate desk for each child, with a revolving-seat with back. The blackboard runs right round the room above the dado. A German once observed that the greatest contribution that America has made to pedagogy was the school desk. It is to be noted that blackboards, charts, and scientific apparatus are much more in use, especially by the pupils themselves, in the American than in the European school. It is no uncommon thing to find a whole class busily at work on the blackboard.

In 1896 there were 323 schools with banks, and these had 30,921 depositors.

In some American cities—*e.g.*, Boston, a system of medical inspection has been inaugurated on similar lines to that adopted in the Parisian schools.

Organisation and Curriculum.—The American Primary School when fully graded is divided into—

1. The Common School, for children from six to ten years of age.
2. The Grammar School, for children from ten to fourteen years of age.

Thus the fully graded school has eight grades, corresponding to the eight years of school age. The progress of recent years has been mainly an increasing of the number of children taught in graded schools.

In many country districts the children are being conveyed to school, and so disappears the small ungraded school, and in its place we find the fully graded large town school. This has gone on so rapidly of recent years, that probably half the children of the States are now living and being educated under what are practically urban conditions.

Each teacher in the graded school has practically two classes to teach simultaneously. Each is made up of about twenty-five pupils of about the same attainment. Whilst she is “hearing lessons” of the one, the other is preparing lessons. Thirty minutes is devoted to each section, and the teacher endeavours in that time to find out how much the children have mastered of the contents of the text-book.

In its worst form, where often indeed both question and answer are printed in the text-book, it is difficult to find a good word for such a system of memorising the material of text-books. In its best form the questions are carefully considered beforehand by the teacher, and are intended to both probe knowledge and develop thought. The method throws the pupil back upon his own resources, and gives him power and confidence. He can *research* for himself.

Although the method of teaching in the American school has been condemned by nearly all European teachers who have observed it, and indeed by an increasing number of American educators, and although it was first adopted because it is the method that the partially educated and untrained teacher would adopt, yet there is much to be said in favour of it. It consists essentially in mastering the contents of certain selected text-books.

Now, text-books are, as a rule, written only by the more able, the more experienced teachers, and before they reach the school are subjected to a very severe scrutiny from an army of critics. These critics, too, are often able teachers. The result is that the average text-book—that is to say, the book that has attained any considerable measure of public use—must be a suitable book, and a book written in accordance with the best principles of pedagogy; so that, where such a book is used, one may rest satisfied that the material will be presented for the assimilation of the learner in the best way. Further, the part of the teacher in education should be largely passive, not active.

Teachers—particularly what the world calls the best teachers—teach far too much. The German teacher teaches too much; so do many English and French teachers. The really able teacher is prepared to suppress himself. This the American teacher largely does—she suppresses herself; not, indeed, from choice, but from necessity. However, even then some good doubtless ensues.

The curriculum of the average American rural school is confined mainly to the three R's—reading, writing, and arithmetic. An effort was made some years ago by the National Education Association to find out what was really being taught in a certain number of city schools, and the results of this inquiry are embodied in a report. (*C.R.*, 1888-89, p. 373; see also *A.E.*, p. 109.)

Returns were obtained from eighty-two different cities, and these, when tabulated, showed that of the eight years of school-life a total of about 7000 hours is spent in school—that is, about 4½ hours daily for 200 days every year. Of this total time—

Spelling (that bugbear of the English-speaking child) absorbed	...	516 hours.
Reading took	1,188 ,,
Geography	500 ,,
Arithmetic	1,190 ,,
Grammar	300 ,,
History	150 ,,
Physiology (in 66 cities)	...	169 ,,
Morals and Manners (in 27 cities)	...	167 ,,
Natural Science (in 39 cities)	...	176 ,,

Singing was quite general, and Vocal Music was taught in many cities. Lessons in Cookery were reported from New Haven (80 hours) and Washington, D.C. (114 hours); cooking is also taught in Boston and other cities. Physical Culture is very generally taught: sixty-three cities include it in the school-course, and devote 249 hours a year to it.

In 1898 Manual Training was included in the curricula of the schools of 149 cities, and it is taught also in 359 institutions other than city schools. In Massachusetts every town of over 20,000 people must arrange for Manual Training Courses in all its schools, primary and secondary.

Needlework has been taught in New York schools since 1887 by special teachers. In fifty departments it is taught, for one hour per week, and to girls of above nine years of age only.

Sewing and Cookery are taught in the schools of Denver and of Philadelphia. Temperance instruction, too, is enforced by the laws of many States, but its inclusion in the curriculum has been very much criticised. Special subjects of this kind when introduced into the primary school curriculum are never a success. Compare, for example, the teaching of Temperance, of Agriculture, and of Manual Training in the French primary school. However, this does not deter American educators from urging still more drastic changes. Says the Superintendent of Detroit Schools, speaking of the High School Course: "Why not establish a course eliminating the classics

and polite languages, and in its stead supply Shorthand, Typewriting, Commercial Book-keeping, Banking, and matters of everyday business? Out of the 30,000 children at present in our schools, our experience has shown us that less than 2000 will ever enter the high school, and less than 150 ever graduate; and it seems to me that even before the high school is reached, this matter of practical, everyday education should be attempted." (*C.R.*, 1896-97, p. 1,305.)

The American Teacher.—Americans themselves are generally agreed that the weakest point in their system is the teacher. There are 400,000 primary teachers, and of this huge army it is impossible to make any general statement except that in variety it is unexcelled. The contrast that we have observed running all through the American system between the work of the best schools and that of the worst schools will find its natural explanation in the remarkable variations in academic qualifications and professional skill of the American teacher. On the one hand is a teacher who has received a Secondary School training, supplemented by a two, three, or four years' course in the State Normal School; on the other hand is the poor, broken-down relative of a powerful school manager, thrust into the school for the brief period it is annually open, with absolutely no professional or academic qualification whatsoever for the high post of teacher; and these are privates in the same great army.

No one can use stronger words than the American official on the gross way in which the interests of the school and its children are made subservient to personal considerations by unscrupulous school managers. "With all deference to the faithful and conscientious ones, in many instances the school fund is being wantonly and unrighteously wasted. Men and women who have made a failure of their own lives and enterprises are to-day occupying these positions (Directors of Schools)" (State Superintendent of Colorado, *C.R.*, 1896-97, p. 1,283); and Judge Draper writes, "Men engaged in managing the organisations of the different political parties have undertaken to control appointments in the interests of their party machines, and the downright scoundrels have infested the school organisation in some places for the sake of plunder." It is this deplorable state of things that is driving democratic America into the arms of the bureaucrat.

STATISTICS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES
FOR 1897-98 (Hinsdale, *A.E.*, p. 377).

	Public Normal Schools.	Private Normal Schools.	TOTAL.
Number of Normal Schools ...	167	178	345
Teachers instructing Normal Students ...	1,863	1,008	2,871
Students in Teacher's Training Courses ..	46,245	21,293	67,538
Male Students ...	12,578	10,597	23,175
Female Students ...	33,667	10,696	44,363
Number of Normal Graduates...	8,188	3,067	11,255
Male Graduates ...	1,543	1,689	3,232
Female Graduates ...	6,645	1,378	8,023
Volumes in Libraries ...	566,684	191,460	761,144
Value of Buildings, Grounds, Apparatus ...	\$19,980,222	\$5,047,507	\$25,027,729
Value of Benefactions received in 1897-98 ...	336,185	240,203	576,388
Total Money Value of Endowment ...	1,472,865	2,311,594	3,784,459
Appropriated by States, Counties, and Cities for Buildings and Improvements in 1897-98 ...	417,866	—	417,866
Appropriated by same for Support ...	2,566,132	19,696	2,585,828
Received from Tuition and other Fees ...	514,562	648,459	1,163,021
Received from Productive Funds	57,648	38,759	96,407
Received from other Sources and unclassified ...	307,409	191,995	499,404
Total Income for 1897-98...	3,445,751	898,909	4,344,660

Let us now first see what the means are for equipping the American teacher for her work. To fill up the vacancies in an army of 400,000 teachers, annual recruits to the number of 60,000 are required. There are in the United States 167 public normal schools primarily intended for the training of teachers, and supported either by the State or city. These have 46,245 students, and turn out annually 8000 students who have completed the course. Besides these there are 178 private normal schools with 21,293 students, which supply annually 3000 more completed students. Thus the normal schools under present conditions can supply about one-sixth of the annual demand.

It must not be overlooked, however, that it is the *trained* teacher who is most likely to remain in the profession, so that the proportion of trained teachers is certainly greater than would be indicated by the annual supply from the normal schools.

On the other hand, it must be stated that many of these normal schools are such in name only. "The normal school does some of the work of the high school, but mingles with it professional training for teachers. . . . There are schools of this character at New York and Philadelphia.

"At New York the course lasts four years and is much like that of a high school, except for two hours a week given to pedagogy in the third year and three hours in the fourth year, out of which last time is taken for a very little practice in teaching. At Philadelphia all the actual practice that falls to the lot of each student is one single week, and she watches the teaching of another student for a week before that." (Zimmern, *Methods of Education in America*, p. 26.) And Professor Hinsdale thus compares the American with the Prussian normal school:—

"While the German schools confine themselves exclusively to training intending teachers, including, to be sure, much academic instruction, American schools generally do a large amount of miscellaneous teaching. To a great extent they parallel the work of the high schools, and to some extent even the elementary schools. In the second place, this wide range of work accounts in part for the much greater size of the American schools. In 1888 only five of the 115 normal schools of Prussia had upwards of a hundred pupils, while one had less than fifty, but several of our State schools count more than a thousand pupils. It must always be borne in mind that a large proportion of these American pupils are in no proper sense normal pupils. In the third place, there is necessarily a great disparity in the size of the respective faculties. An ordinary Prussian normal school requires but nine teachers, including the two in the practice school, while our normal school staffs often number fifty or sixty persons. It is clear, therefore, that we have not yet realised the pure normal school type as Germany, for example, has done. Nor can it be doubted that our schools, as institutions for training teachers, have often suffered greatly from their overgrown numbers and large classes." (Hinsdale, *A.E.*, p. 378.)

Of State normal schools New York now possesses 12, Pennsylvania 13; West Virginia, North Carolina, Missouri, and Wisconsin have 7 each.

The New York State normal schools cost the State £105,000 per annum. Of this amount, £6,119 was devoted to the provision of libraries and text-books. The practising schools, kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and academic, absorbed £5,704. These schools turn out annually 860 graduates, of whom 714 are women. The cost of each graduate to the State is from £80 to £100. (Millar, *ibid.*, p. 107.)

It is impossible to say what proportion of American teachers have received the benefit of any kind of professional training before beginning to teach.

It is confessed on all hands that the professional efficiency of the American rural teachers is generally very low.¹ Even in the towns and cities not one in four of the teachers has received any kind of training. In many States a majority of the primary school teachers have received no education whatever further than that provided in the primary schools. While the fatal belief of American democracy persists, "that anybody is fit for anything" (J. S. Mill), the necessity of training the teacher will not be popularly recognised. An American head-mistress, when asked whether she believed in the necessity of training for teachers, replied emphatically *no*, and gave an utterly ludicrous reason for the faith in her (Dr. Rice, *The Public School System of the United States*, p. 58). Even in cities like Chicago we are told by Dr. Rice that there are many teachers absolutely destitute of any professional training, and some of them who have never been through even a secondary school course. In Massachusetts, admittedly the first State in educational efficiency, 38.5 per cent. only of all the teachers have passed through a normal school (Hinsdale, *A.E.*, p. 376).

Over half the teachers of the State of Pennsylvania are only provisionally certificated, and nine thousand of them have received no other education than that provided by the common

¹ "In America," says M. Levasseur, "the masters are as a rule young; they have energy and enthusiasm, but they lack skill and experience; the 'elective' system exposes them to frequent changes, and moreover in the country the school year is very short: all these reasons give rise to the abuse of the Text-book method, and to the idea which teachers and pupils share, that all is done when the text-book has been recited to the last page." (*Ibid.*, p. 394.)

school. This professional weakness of the American teacher has led to two developments—

1. The appointment of an expert to take charge of the city or county system, whose chief duty it is to train the teacher professionally.
2. The growth of subsidiary means of training by which the teacher is able during school vacations, and at other times, to attend special courses and conferences on pedagogical subjects.

The American teacher knows her weakness, and is most ready to learn. "I am convinced," says Mr. Findlay, "that there is in the minds of American teachers a desire to learn about education, a humility with reference to their present knowledge of the subject which contrasts favourably with the attitude of the successful teacher in European countries." (*Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, "A Report on Certain Features of Secondary Education in the United States of America and in Canada."*) And the President of Haverford College, who has made a special study of the English system of schools, is still more pointed:—

"Our system has a tremendous and overflowing vitality, which promises more for the future than the well-fitted machinery of England. Did you ever live in a country town during the week of a teachers' institute? It is a greater attraction than the new railroad or the circus. The air is saturated with educational questions. The teachers, often of the same social grade as the best of the residents, are received into the homes and made the central features of the excitement. Better still, have you ever been to a State or national education convention? The discussions do not strike one as being in the least shallow or vaguely general. . . . Thus our country is permeated with educational life. England does not know much of it. Her teachers do not read professional literature, as ours do. They do not communicate popular enthusiasm for education as ours do, although they are often more highly trained."—President Sharpless, of Haverford College, on the "Relation of the State to Education in England and America" (No. 87, in publications of the American Academy of Political and Social Science).

The school superintendent, like all other American institutions, varies enormously. He is often merely an artful politician, a skilful wirepuller, and absolutely destitute of any

educational qualification for his high post. He devotes a small portion of his time to this work, and his main interest in the school is concerned with helping his political friends. But of that type of superintendent we will say nothing more here. We would rather devote our attention to the skilled experts who are generally found at the head of the large city organisations. Too often their tenure of office is as uncertain as that of the teacher, and the wonder is that these distinguished men are content to fill such precarious posts. Many of these higher posts are held by women; thus two State superintendents are women. Out of 836 cities that have superintendents, 18 are occupied by women, who also occupy 256 county superintendencies.

The superintendent is the head of the city administrative machine for education. He generally examines and appoints all teachers, has a considerable voice in the selection of textbooks, and prescribes not only the course of study for the schools, but details the methods to be pursued. The result is that oftentimes the efficiency of a school is estimated by the care and faithfulness with which the superintendent's instructions have been carried out. The results are often admirable, and generally very much better than could be anticipated, were the quality of the staff and their previous professional training alone considered. But in the case of the trained, skilful, and resourceful teacher, so little is left to his own individuality that the system often becomes very galling, and indeed something like tyranny arises.

To supplement the training of the teacher a number of characteristic institutions have arisen in America. Such are the Teachers' Institutes, Summer Schools, and Reading Unions. The Institute may be confined to the teachers of a single city, county, or State, or may be constituted by an amalgamation of two or more of these units. It consists of a series of conferences, lectures, and discussions, in which the chief officials and teachers take part. It may extend from a couple of days to weeks. Attendance is often compulsory. In the State of New York as many as 106 Institutes were held in one year, and attended by over 16,000 teachers. The total cost was £7000. The Summer School is an attempt to combine the advantages of the normal school and the Teachers' Institute, and is generally held in the normal school during the summer vacation. It is estimated that half the total number of teachers in the

United States attend either one or other of these various organisations for subsidiary training.

We have already said something as to the peculiar qualifications of many American teachers, and an obvious question is, How do such people get into the profession at all? It has been already pointed out how the locality controls the school, and how strongly and zealously the local rights are defended.

The appointment of teachers is in the hands of the local managers, whether these be the District School Trustees or the City Council. They alone fix the qualifications of the teacher, as a rule. They also fix the time during which the certificate of qualification is valid.

Hence we get the most extraordinary variety of certificates. This town certifies its teachers for one year, that one for three, and so on. In a few of the more progressive States an attempt has been made to introduce a certificate which shall be valid for the whole State, and for life; but only about one in every thirty teachers, even in New York State, holds such a certificate.

The school managers sometimes fix a very low standard for their teachers. The fact is, they have to cut their coat according to their cloth. The pay of the average American teacher is very low. For men it totals up to £109 per annum, and for women £93 per annum; that is, were the monthly pay continued throughout the year. The average monthly pay is highest on the Pacific Slope, namely, for men, £11.72; for women, £10.18; and lowest in the South Atlantic States, where it is for men, £6.22; for women, £6.29.

"In a city like Chicago, where a working man receives on an average two dollars a day, men and women teachers in primary schools begin with £80 for the first year, and ultimately reach a maximum of £155. . . . The so-called School Cadets—pupil teachers in fact, whose employment was a necessity in years past in Prussia—also receive three shillings a day for their work, which they perform under the supervision and guidance of a regular teacher." (Prof. Waetzoldt, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 567.)

In Massachusetts, which employs 989 males and 10,244 females, the average salary of the males, who are generally principals, is £28 per month, and of the women £10 per month.

It is to be remembered, too, that deductions from salary

are made for absences from school,¹ and that as a rule no pensions are awarded to the American teacher.

Here is a table giving teachers' salaries in the chief American cities:—

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS AND SUPERVISING OFFICERS IN CITIES OF OVER 100,000 INHABITANTS.

City.	Number of Teachers and Supervising Officers.	Paid for Supervising and Teaching.	Average Salary.
San Francisco, Cal. ...	1,070	\$940,820	\$879.27
Denver (District No. 1), Col. ...	292	243,650	834.42
Washington, D.C. ...	1,061	801,016	754.96
Chicago, Ill. ...	5,535	4,937,362	892.03
Indianapolis, Ind. ...	627	399,928	637.84
Louisville, Ky. ...	394	408,237	687.27
New Orleans, La. ...	691	319,000	461.55
Baltimore, Md. ...	1,855	1,084,109	584.42
Boston, Mass. ...	1,832	1,952,483	1,065.77
Detroit, Mich. ...	832	571,813	687.27
Minneapolis, Minn. ...	782	530,474	678.36
St. Paul, Minn. ...	572	334,465	584.73
Kansas City, Mo. ...	508	336,844	663.08
St. Louis, Mo. ...	1,670	1,013,853	607.09
Omaha, Neb. ...	394	259,131	657.69
Jersey City, N.J. ...	582	354,410	608.95
Newark, N.J. ...	748	518,695	693.44
Buffalo, N.Y. ...	1,234	793,412	642.96
New York, N.Y. ...	10,008	8,127,067	812.05
Rochester, N.Y. ...	765	396,922	518.85
Cincinnati, Ohio ...	910	790,342	868.51
Cleveland, Ohio ...	1,234	883,077	715.62
Alleghany, Pa. ...	393	246,330	626.79
Philadelphia, Pa. ...	3,471	2,422,820	698.02
Pittsburg, Pa. ...	912	641,789	703.72
Providence, R.I. ...	680	451,833	664.46
Milwaukee, Wis. ...	862	. 581,037	674.06

(C.R., 1898-99, p. 1,477.)

¹ In the city of New York the fractions of salary forfeited by teachers or other school employees, owing to absence from duty, together with 1 per cent. of all the salaries, which is retained for the purpose, are sufficient to create a fund for the retirement of old or incapacitated teachers, which fund has assumed considerable proportions—about \$65,000.

The proportion of the sexes in the army of American teachers was in 1897-98—

Male	131,750
Female	277,443

For previous years the numbers were—

—	1870-71.	1879-80.	1889-90.
Male	...	90,293	122,795
Female	...	129,932	125,525 238,397

The average professional life of the American teacher is said to be about five years ; of the country teacher, only about two years. In Minnesota, in 1892, out of 6,560 teachers—

937	had been in the same post for more than 3 years ;
397	" " "
641	" " "

and the remainder were all new appointments: Indeed, it has been said that there is no profession of teaching in America. Teaching is simply used as a means to some higher end—marriage in the case of women, and some other professional career in the case of men. The American teacher seems to lack the sense of professional unity. There are no purely teachers' associations in America as there are in France, England, Germany, Holland, and Belgium. This is a great loss. Until professional unity has been developed, it will be impossible to retain the best minds as teachers. At present the American teacher is entirely in the hands of the superintendent, and will remain so until the professional instinct has led to co-operation and self-help. It is a professional corps of teachers that is America's great need, and no army of expert officials will ever fill this gap.

The State Superintendent for New York has pointed out the difficulties that face the school. Two-thirds of the teachers now in the school will not be there in five years' time. The

teachers are mainly young and inefficient girls. Only about one teacher in four is a professional teacher. He points out how unqualified members of school boards are to certify teachers, how feelings of relationship and political partisanship influence them, how inadequate a protection against this exploiting of the school is the County Commissioner, who is himself appointed on a political ticket, and who also has friends to please. Moreover, every one is eligible for the Commissionership. If the holder is professionally efficient —well, that is an accident. If not, what guarantee have we of the value of his examinations and certificates? And he adds:—

“Indiscriminate licensing must cease. The age at which a person may begin teaching must be advanced. Professional training must be insisted upon whenever practicable, and where not, then at least a minimum standard of intellectual qualifications must be attained at a stated public examination. Examinations must be in competent professional hands. The authority to certify and the power to employ must never be lodged in the same persons. The certificate must be gained before employment is legal. Teachers must be treated better, and their rights must be more thoroughly protected. They must be paid as well as equally qualified persons in other employments. Their tenure of position must be more secure. More men must be kept in the work. In short, a policy must be pursued, a plan must be devised, which will cause the teaching service to become broader, more substantial, more self-respecting, and equal to all the demands which may be made upon it, no matter how exacting those demands may be.” (*C.R.*, 1889-90, p. 1162.)

The Average School.—In the Commissioners’ report for 1897-98 is given an interesting summary of the state of education in the schools of the average American city—that is, a city of about 40,000 people. In such a city, 6,070 children are enrolled in the public schools, and the average daily attendance is 4,542; there are also 1,393 children enrolled in private schools. The city has 7 superintendents, 4 men and 3 women. In the schools there are 125 teachers, of whom only 9 or 10 are men, and each teacher has 36 pupils in attendance. There are 15 schools in the city, each worth £6,349, and accommodating 8 or 9 teachers with 312 pupils, but with further accommodation for 72 children. These schools cost alto-

gether annually £28,362, of which £16,634 goes to pay teachers and superintendents. The average salary of teacher and superintendent is £125. The schools are annually open for 9½ months of 20 days each, and each child attends annually for 7 months and 2 days.

Of the average American rural schools,¹ we are told the vast majority have only one teacher. For the whole of the States, there is in each rural school 1.4 teachers and 48.2 pupils, and the attendance of these children is such that only two-thirds of them attend regularly. Each rural pupil gets 83 days of actual instruction annually. The average value of the rural school is very small—namely, £174, and each child's place costs one-fourth of that in a city school.

Of the country school teachers 38 per cent. are men, and the average salary is £43 per annum. The following table brings out the contrast between these two schools and the schools of the city of New York very clearly:—

—	Average of all City Schools.	Average of all Country and Village Schools.	Schools of New York City.
Ratio of average attendance to total enrolment per cent.	74.8	66.2	71.2
Average length of school term... days	189.6	125.3	195.7
Average number of days' attendance of each pupil enrolled	141.8	83.0	139.4
Average number of pupils in attendance to each teacher	36.3	22.5	42.3
Proportion of men in the teaching force per cent.	7.7	38.0	51
Average number of pupils to a building	312	48	828
Value of school property <i>per capita</i> of pupils in attendance	\$101.78	\$27.33	\$129.34
Average value of a school building with its site and furniture	\$31,748	\$872	\$107,104
Average cost of tuition per day for one pupil cents	9.66	7.69	10.88
Average daily expenditure per pupil for all purposes cents.	16.47	11.29	24.37
Average salary of teachers and supervisors...	\$629	\$217	\$825

¹ Including in that term all schools other than the above.

The population of the *cities* (towns of over 8000) constitutes 31.6 per cent. of the total population of the States, and of the following items the proportion of the cities is—

Public school enrolment	25.3	per cent.
Average daily attendance	27.6	"
Whole amount of instruction given	36.6	"
Number of male teachers	4.6	"
Whole number of male teachers	19.1	"
Number of buildings	3.8	"
Value of school property	58.7	"
Expenditure for tuition	42.1	"
Total expenditure	45.7	"

The most remarkable feature of the American system is the extreme variation in efficiency noticeable. Between some of the city schools and the rural, it is possible to find every variety of educational efficiency. The city school is, in many respects, admirable, and comparable with the best European schools. In these schools some of the most suggestive experiments are being tried. They are not hampered either by a central bureaucratic authority or by tradition.

Nature study is made the fundamental basis of the curriculum, and thought expression is taught not by pencil and pen and tongue only, but by means of the skilled hand and with modelling knife, brush, and chalk.

Finally, let it be remarked that in the better American school a strenuous effort is made to develop the personality of each pupil. His self-respect is fostered. He is allowed to grow strong in his own strength. He is permitted freedom to grow. His resourcefulness is developed. He is taught to rely upon himself—not upon his teacher. And no school can do more than this, and any school may do less only at its peril.

The table on the next page gives the statistics of the *Common* schools. It should be carefully noted that in statistics of American education the term *Common* school is applied to *all* public schools, whether primary or secondary, and that the figures referring to public education, such as are given in this chapter, include both primary and secondary schools and teachers. No official countenance is given to the theory that the national school is divisible into compartments, primary and secondary.

COMMON SCHOOL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

General Statistics.	1870-71.	1898-99.
Total population...	39,500,500	73,960,220
Number of persons 5 to 18 years of age	12,305,600	21,830,774
Number of different pupils enrolled...	7,561,582	15,138,715
Per cent. of total population enrolled	19.14	20.47
Per cent. of persons 5 to 18 years of age enrolled	61.45	69.34
Average daily attendance ...	4,545 3 ¹⁷	10,389,407
Ratio of same to enrolment	60.1	68.6
Average length of school term (days)	132.1	143.2
Average number of days attended for each pupil enrolled	79.4	98.3
Male teachers ...	99,293	131,793
Female teachers ...	129,932	283,867
Whole number of teachers...	220,225	415,660
Per cent. of male teachers...	41.0	31.7
Average monthly wage of teachers—		
Males	—	£9
Females	—	£7 ³
Number of school-houses ...	132,119	244,527
Value of school property ...	£28,763,740	£104,937,851
Expenditure per pupil (of average attendance):		
For sites, buildings, etc.	—	£0.64
For salaries ...	£1.87	2.48
For all other purposes ...	—	0.68
Total expenditure per pupil ...	£3.04	3.80

CHAPTER VII.

THE WORKING OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

IN comparing the English, German, French, and American systems of education, we observe that they naturally group themselves into two classes, which may be described as the individualist and the socialist. France and Germany are both striking examples of the socialistic type, in which the individual is lost in the community; England and America, on the contrary, exemplify the triumph of the individual. The administration in France and Germany is strongly bureaucratic; the local community, as such, has practically no effective control over the primary school or teacher. They are both State, and not local, institutions. In Germany we see the State nominate all the school officials, and the sole local representatives, the mayor or the priest, are themselves State officials. The people have no control whatsoever over the school or its curriculum; nay more, they are expressly precluded from visiting it or taking any active, effective interest in the education of their children. The State becomes the foster-mother, who resents the slightest interference from the natural mother. The local managers in the rural districts have, it is true, a certain amount of discretion left them in the selection of the teacher and the hours of opening of the school, but even this discretion can only be exercised with the approval of the Government official. Any one familiar with German life knows that such proceeding is not contrary to popular habit and the general attitude of the public to the State. To the great majority of Germans, the State is the fairy godmother, without whom they can do nothing. "No one can live long in Germany without being struck by the effects upon the national character of patriarchal and bureaucratic rule. These effects are manifold, and are observable on every hand. Just as the military system has produced a people wonderfully amenable to order and discipline, so the bureaucratic system of government has created a

spirit of meek forbearance and unmanly dependence in civil life; the one result is excellent, the other in every way harmful. Hence comes the absence of that vigorous public life which one is accustomed to find in countries of free institutions, and a large indifference towards national and local affairs equally." (W. H. Dawson in *German Life in Town and Country*).¹

To those who know by experience the hard, one might say brutal, life of the German peasant, this indifference is not surprising. In his charming book on *German Life in Town and Country*, Mr. W. H. Dawson tells us (p. 91):—

"Alike in regard to wages, housing, and food—largely potatoes—the condition of the house-workers in most country districts is lamentable, and in towns it is not much better. It would, indeed, be difficult to exaggerate the misery which has for years been the lot of this class of workers. Where, as in Silesia, a hand-weaver is glad to earn 5s. or 6s. for work which occupies nine days of from sixteen to eighteen hours (less than a halfpenny per hour), while his wife toils six hours a day for three weeks to complete a web which brings her an equal sum, the problem how to make ends meet suggests to the social economist many reflections. Yet with all their poverty these people are self-reliant, upright, and not without the crowning virtue of self-respect. The governments do their best to relieve exceptionally acute distress when it occurs, and early every winter the prospects of the poorer classes of house-workers located in remote districts are carefully inquired into, so that contingencies may be prepared for."

In France bureaucracy is, if possible, still more paramount. The whole of the effective administration is in the hands of

¹ The following cutting amplifies the statement of the indifference of the average German labourer to national affairs:—"Recently a German officer asked some young recruits who Bismarck was. Out of fifty there were thirty who could give no answer. Ten muttered vaguely that Bismarck was a German general or emperor, and ten gave a suitable reply. The experiment has just been repeated in an infantry regiment, seventy-eight young soldiers being subjected to the test. Twenty-one had never heard of the great man at all; thirty-two made him a brutal general; nine, a celebrated warrior; six, a Minister of War; five described him as the first Chancellor of the Empire; nine said he was the founder of the German Empire; one soldier called him the first German emperor; another saw in him a poet; a third, a translator of the Bible; and the last said that Bismarck had been the greatest enemy of the Emperor. There appears to be a *faute d'arithmétique* somewhere; but, disregarding this point, the story is interesting."

officials, and the local control of the school is entirely in the hands of the primary inspector. The civil power, such as the communal mayor, may, it is true, visit the school and investigate its needs, but no interference whatsoever with the actual working is tolerated. The curriculum is drafted in Paris, and all modifications emanate from the capital—from the Minister of State. The State trains, appoints, pays, and pensions the teachers, who are removable only by the State officials. There are two public bodies, it is true, which are composed of non-officials but are not elective—viz., the Cantonal delegations, consisting of certain people in a district nominated by the Departmental Council and entrusted with a certain power of watching the welfare of the schools in their district, and, secondly, the School Attendance Committees. Neither of these has been particularly successful in its efforts.

It is to be observed too that the educational bureaucracy of France (and Germany) is a “closed corporation.” Practically the only entrance to every branch of the service is through the normal school. This feature will doubtless appeal to some minds, but such a closed system has very serious defects. It tends to become detached and isolated from public life, utilising the prejudices of the community for its own ends, and looking at every problem from a purely professional rather than a public standpoint.

In England, the land of compromises, the system of administration is a compromise between the bureaucracy of Europe and the licensed liberty of America. The central authority licenses the teachers but does not pay them; it pensions them but does not appoint them, and at present has practically no voice in their removal by the local authorities. Up to 1900 it prescribed a portion of the curriculum, but left the remainder to the choice of the local authorities. To-day the local authorities have practically complete freedom as to curriculum and methods. The State reserves to its officers a power of veto, it is true, but this will be used mainly to prevent inefficient and ignorant administration. The community in England has complete control over the school, but the State reserves to itself full power of preventing inefficiency.¹

¹ “The true ideal of a State demands that the central government shall so act on the individual citizen as to continually develop in him the power of self-direction. In England there is a constant pull of the whole State upon each citizen and each local interest, thus challenging its strength. On

In America, despite the diversity of administration, the one supreme fact is the government of the people's schools by the people. The common school of America is completely controlled by the common people and their representatives. It is they who pay, appoint, dismiss, and indeed license the teachers. The teachers are not civil servants; they are to a large extent an unprofessional class. They do not possess the professional exclusiveness of the French or German teacher, nor the professional sense of unity of the English teacher. The professional development of the teacher, his exclusiveness from public life and interests, is least marked in America, next in England, and most marked in Germany and France. The continental school and its teacher stand apart from the people; they are part of the State machinery for the manufacture of citizens, and incidentally citizens themselves.

It is most important to recognise this detachment of the school in France and Germany. In England and America the school and its teacher are part of the community, and as such are liable to every gust of public prejudice and fluctuation of opinion. In these countries, too, the school, lost in the community as it is, has but slight influence upon public opinion. There are much more powerful engines for the manufacture of public opinion in these countries than the school.

The subsidiary means of education in England and America, too, are many and varied--such as the newspaper, without which no true democratic community could live, the theatre, etc. For example, think of the educative value of the cinematograph. It teaches geography in a way it has never been taught before. As a result of all these, the intellectual standard of the common folk in England and America is very much higher than might be imagined from a glance at the curriculum and a visit to the schools.

Of the ages of school attendance in these States, it is to be noticed that the school-life of the English child is from eight to nine years, of the German child from seven to eight years, of the French about six years, and of the American about five

the other hand, each local interest and each individual pulls constantly on the Government to gain its own ends: The Roman system rather tends to encourage cessation of individual effort. Much possible development of individuality rusts unused. There is no other Government so stimulative of development in the individual as the English."—W. T. Harris in Preface to Sharpless's *English Education*.

years. These figures are approximations only. In England the minimum leaving age is twelve; it is eleven in France; in Germany it is thirteen in the country and fourteen in the towns. In the United States it varies considerably, and the law dealing with it (when existent) is but rarely enforced. Of children under six or seven years of age there were in the English school in 1900 a total of 2,023,319 enrolled; in the French infant school (including the various types--e.g., *école maternelle*, *école enfantine*, etc.) there were in 1896 a total enrolled of 720,120 children; in Germany the kindergartens are completely ignored by the State, and the number attending them is unknown, but is certainly not considerable; in America in 1898 there were 4,363 kindergartens with 189,604 pupils.

Thus, of all these systems, England alone provides a comprehensive course of infant training. This fact is to some extent due to the earlier and fuller development in England than elsewhere of the modern factory system, with all its curses to children.

In estimating the efficiency of a system of national education, a valuable criterion is afforded by the proportion of children enrolled to the total population of the country. This figure gives us an index to the "child-catching" power of the machine. Of the total population the percentage of children enrolled in the public schools is—

In the United States	20.47
„ England and Wales	17.73
„ France	14.36
„ Prussia	20.0

(And for all Germany it is 18).

These figures, however, like all comparative statistics of education, need some explanation. Probably the Prussian enrolment may be taken as normal. The low figure for France is due to the greater virility and longevity of adults in France; the children do not form so great a proportion of the population as in other countries.

The figure for America is high; but this includes all children between five and eighteen years of age, enrolled in all kinds of schools, primary and secondary. No other country,

of a comparable character, excepting these two, has a larger enrolment than England.

The regularity with which the children attend school is one of the best indexes to the hold education has upon the popular mind, though this index is often blurred in military and monarchical States by the better discipline and amenability of the common people to the law.

In Germany the average daily attendance is taken at 90 per cent. of the total enrolled, that is to say, of children between the ages of six and thirteen, or six and fourteen years. In France the daily average attendance is not so high, and probably does not reach 85 per cent. of those enrolled. In rural France the attendance is admittedly unsatisfactory, and the work of the *Commissions scolaires* has been generally a failure. In England the attendance of children over seven years of age is 87½ per cent., and of children under seven it is 72.18 per cent. In America the attendance is, as we have seen, only 68½ per cent. However, these figures are all open to legitimate criticism, and until a uniform system of obtaining statistics of average attendance has been adopted, no great value can be attached to them.

In Germany it may be said that compulsory education is fully realised ; there is practically no leakage. Every child is compelled to pass through the educational machine. This perfection is due to several causes, but mainly to the fact that the habit of school attendance has in Germany become automatic. Neither the practicability nor possibility of evading the law ever occurs to the German parent or child. This habit is the result of generations of school-goers. The parent or guardian is fined a sum of from one penny to a shilling for each day that the child is absent without proper excuse ; and if the fine is not immediately paid, imprisonment for from three hours to a day follows. It is not so much the severity as the certainty of the law that has engendered this admirable habit in the German people. In France and England the systems are too young for such a habit to have been acquired. In England there has been a slow but persistent improvement from year to year. In France there is reason to believe that attendance is not improving.

Another factor that affects school attendance is the distance of the home from the school. In England, it is well known, a considerable number of children have to walk two miles or more to school; in Prussia, one only in twenty-five walks one

and a half miles or more;¹ and in France, where every commune has a school, the proportion is, I should imagine, small who walk a considerable distance to school.² Country people in France and Germany live more in the villages and less in isolated farms than in England and America.

In the year 1896 the total number of elementary schools was—

In Prussia	36,542
„ France	83,465
„ England	19,848
„ the United States	242,528,

which shows that there was approximately one school for every 300 people in the United States, for every 450 people in France, for every 870 people in Prussia, and for every 1,550 people in England. This variation is largely due to the differences in density of population; schools become larger and fewer, the denser the population. The greater the number of large schools, the better is it, for such large schools mean closer grading, better staffing and equipment.

On the other hand, the greater the number of schools in a district, the better should the attendance be, as a rule, for the school would be nearer the home. If one maps out the schools over the area to be served, one finds that in America each school has to serve an area of approximately 12 square miles;³ in France an area of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; in Prussia, of $3\frac{2}{3}$ miles;

¹ “At L——t, a village of 3000 people, we found that in the centre of the village there was a large Catholic school. At each end were two small Protestant schools, one of them very much understaffed. When we asked the master of one of these Protestant schools why they had not concentrated their resources upon one good school, as the Catholics had done, he told us that one school was much older than the other, but as the population increased and the village grew in length the parents objected to sending their children to the school at the other end of the village. This school was distant from their homes *nearly half a mile*. Their complaint was recognised and a new school built.”—Hughes and Beauland, *Special Reports*.

² Mr. Brereton, however, writes, “I came across children who have to trudge to school three miles there and back every day, except Thursday, which is a whole holiday.” (*Special Reports*, vol. vii.)

³ The number of square miles to each school-house in the United States is sometimes enormous. Thus in Nevada each school has an area of 733 square miles, in Arizona 516 square miles, in Wyoming 439, and in Mon-

and in England of 3 miles. When one remembers how much denser the population is in England than in Prussia or France, one recognises that school accommodation is much more complete in France than it is in England. Even Prussia is better than England in this respect. This fact accounts in a large measure for the more irregular attendance of children in the English school. The figures for America are not as definite as one could wish, as they include various buildings which would not be included as schools in Europe, and the precise significance of the term "school" in the above table is not clear even for European countries.¹ The fact is that here again such comparisons must be received with due discrimination until we possess a definite phraseology for educational statistics.

Let us compare the relative proportions of the cost of the school borne by the State and the local communities in these four countries. In England and Wales the current income is thus divided:

	England.		
	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.
Government Grants (including fee grant and grants for Science and Art) ...	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
... 40.6	39.9	38.4	
* Rates (including sums received under the Agricultural Rates Act, 1896) ...	56.6	57.7	58.5
School fees and sale of books to the children ...	1.0	0.9	0.9
Other sources of income ...	1.8	1.5	2.2

* £91,104 was received in England under the Agricultural Rates Act, 1896, being .98 per cent. of the total current income; and in Wales £15,614, being 2.3 per cent.

tana 379 square miles. On the other hand, in Massachusetts each school serves an area of 1 square mile, in the District of Columbia less than a square mile, in Rhode Island $2\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, in Connecticut, Ohio, Indiana, and Pennsylvania 3 square miles. Whereas in the North Atlantic States there is one school for every $3\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, in the Western States there is only one school for every 124 square miles. (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 143.)

¹ The term school—*e.g.*, in some of these figures, simply means premises hired for the purposes of teaching.

	Wales.		
	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.
Government Grants (including fee grant and grants for Science and Art)	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
* Rates (including sums received under the Agricultural Rates Act, 1896)	50.7	51.0	47.7
School fees and sale of books to the children	47.0	46.6	50.0
Other sources of income ...	0.6	0.5	0.6
	1.7	1.9	1.7

* £91,104 was received in England under the Agricultural Rates Act, 1896, being .98 per cent. of the total current income; and in Wales £15,614, being 2.3 per cent.

In Prussia, as we have already seen, the figures vary for town and country (1896):—

	—	In Towns.	In Country.
		Per cent.	Per cent.
Received from—			
State's contribution	16.05	38.99	
Local taxation	69.25	42.85	
Permanent funds	0.94	6.72	
State and communities combined ...	1.27	1.67	
State, communities, and funds combined	12.49	9.77	

In France the proportions were, in 1896-97—

State	67.02	per cent.
Community ...		32.98	"

And in America the proportions were (1898-99)—

From the permanent funds and rents,	4.4	per cent.
" State taxes ...	17.7	"
" Local taxes ...	70.3	"
" Other sources ...	7.6	"

The amount per annum spent on the education of each child is—

In Prussia	£1 14 0
„ France	1 17 0
„ England	2 11 7
„ the United States	3 16 0

The best mechanical test that can be applied to any system of education is to compare the actual results—the results that can be directly estimated and measured, such, for example, as the proportion of illiterates. (*C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. 780.)

The percentage of "illiterates" is :—

In the United States	13.3	...	1890
„ England	5.80	...	1893
„ France ...	4.90	...	1897
„ Prussia ...	0.16	...	1896

For France and Prussia these figures are obtained from the annual army recruiting, so that they apply strictly to the physically fit, and to the male sex. The weak child, unable to go to school, is often unable to join the army. For England the figures are obtained from the number unable to sign their marriage certificates. The figures for America are obtained from the census.¹ The steady growth in the efficiency of the Prussian system of education is shown thus :—

NUMBER OF CONSCRIPTS UNABLE TO READ OR WRITE
FOR EVERY 100 RECRUITS.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1882-83	2.0	1885-86	1.68	1888-89	0.94
1883-84	1.97	1886-87	1.12	1889-90	0.78
1884-85	1.88	1887-88	1.04		

(Levasseur, p. 110.)

¹ This large number for America is due to the number of coloured people, and to the immigration of the most ignorant and lowest types of Europeans. For native-born Americans the figures are about the same as those of England and France. For the native white population the figure is 6.2; for the foreign-born white population the figure is 13.1; so that the figure of illiteracy for the total white population for the United States, over ten years of age, is 7.7. (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 115.)

Of the school buildings little remains to be said. The playground of the English school is unrivalled. German and French children rarely play, and American children seem to be losing the faculty of play.¹ Childhood is being crowded out of American life. "It soon becomes evident," says Professor Waetzoldt, "that this nation and its children, when compared with ours, are lacking in pensiveness, warmth of feeling, tenderness, and childlike simplicity, and do not enjoy what may be called the fairy life of imagination and heart." (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 560.) The hours of attendance at school in France and Germany exceed those in England and America by as much as five a week. The advantage of this is very dubious. The best of schools is a poor substitute for the open air.

The furniture and fittings generally of the American class-room are considered by many observers to be superior to those of England or Germany. The German class-room has a very cold and bare appearance, and both in German and in French schools the teaching apparatus is generally put out of sight when not in use. Many English and American schools are beautifully decorated with artistic busts and pictures. As we have already seen, the French and American schools are more often equipped with a school library than the English or German school. School gardens are commoner in France and Germany than in England; on the other hand, in no other country are school games so well organised and developed as in England.

There is a close similarity in the curricula of these schools. The philosophical solidarity of the primary school curriculum, designed as it is to train citizens, not craftsmen, is much more rigidly adhered to in Germany than elsewhere. Education is more philosophical, more scientific, in Germany. With unswerving loyalty to his philosophical convictions, the German pedagogue has relentlessly rejected the demands of modern life on the school. He barely tolerates the inclusion of needle-work for girls; as it is, it is generally taught by an outsider. Manual training, cookery, stenography, and book-keeping have clamoured for admission into the primary school curriculum, but, as we have seen, the cry has been practically a vain one.

¹ There is a cogent reason why French children do not play, for the teacher is legally responsible for all accidents to his pupils.

This is a dangerous position for a professional body to take up. The German teachers, primary and secondary, set up the plea of "general training" to all cries of the reformers. They meet the demands of the reformers by cheap sneers and ridicule. If reform comes at all, it must come from without. The teachers themselves confess how quickly the present primary training disappears after school-life is over: both primary and secondary school afford no direct preparation of life. The exclusiveness of the profession has produced the exclusiveness of the school, and both are far from life in modern Germany.

In France we have the other extreme: a whole nation deliberately "burns its boats," cuts itself adrift from its past. No nation before has attempted the experiment on such a scale, and it has cost France much. The national character has lost its conservative elements; its respect for venerable tradition, for old-world ideals, has gone, and in its place there is a feverish clutching at *fin-de-siècle* ideas.¹ Between this spirit of modern France and that of urban America there is a close affinity; hence perhaps that acclaiming of France as the future pedagogic nation of the world. She has much to do yet before she can overhaul the slow, conservative German schoolmaster.

The primary school curriculum of France is characterised by the attempt which has been made to bring it up to date, to make it meet some of the demands of modern life. It was deliberately designed to make better artisans and farmers than in the past; there was an attempt to train citizens *and* craftsmen in the schools. Agricultural instruction was made a compulsory subject in every rural school; and later, manual instruction was made a compulsory subject in every school. The results have not been altogether satisfactory, and it is admitted that the attempt to specialise so early has been a

¹ "It is never well when a nation suddenly leaves the tracks of its cultural development, and either throws the precious inheritance of its fathers wantonly through the window or apathetically leaves it lying in the corner. Then periods of degeneration and decay will occur, such as German history records in the tenth and eleventh, in the fourteenth and fifteenth, and again in the seventeenth century, and finally in our own days. Happy is the nation which in such periods retains a sound core of people who love to think of their ancestry, who lovingly keep the tradition of their ideals, maintain the procession forward and upward, and see to it that under more favourable circumstances, sooner or later, a renaissance of the whole nation may take place,"—Professor Dittes, *C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 343.

failure. French teachers are beginning to see that manual training will not save souls. A vigorous propaganda is now being carried on for making anti-alcoholic instruction a compulsory subject in the school course. France might consult American teachers as to the wisdom of this course.

In England, until recently, the curriculum was dependent upon the relative grant-earning capacity of the different subjects among which choice could be exercised. The result was often an unhappy compromise. The curriculum possessed neither the philosophical solidarity of the German nor the unsophisticated appeal to modern needs of the French.

The school excursion, too, of the German school was almost unknown in the English school. This may to some extent be accounted for by the fact that in England travelling and hotel accommodation, etc., are much more expensive than in Germany; and moreover, in Germany, special facilities by steam-boat owners, etc., have long been granted. In all these matters, too, we must not forget the fact that our extremely variable climate is against us; on the Continent preparations may be made and programmes carried out with a certain amount of confidence.¹ Winter travelling is much more comfortable on the Continent than in England for the same reason.

Practical subjects appealed strongly to the English mind, and Cookery, Laundry Work, and Needlework for girls, with Cottage Gardening and Manual Training for boys, were taken

¹ "Closely akin to the games in their morally strengthening aspect were the walks, especially those of the general walking parties, more particularly when conducted by Pestalozzi himself. These walks were by no means always meant to be opportunities for drawing close to Nature; but Nature herself, though unsought, always drew the walkers close to herself. Every contact with her elevates, strengthens, purifies. It is from this cause that Nature, like noble great-souled men, wins us to her; and whenever school or teaching duties gave me respite my life at this time was always passed amidst natural scenes and in communion with Nature. From the tops of the high mountains near by, I used to rejoice in the clear and still sunset, in the pine forests, the glaciers, the mountain meadows, all bathed in rosy light. Such an evening walk came, indeed, to be an almost irresistible necessity to me after each actively spent day. As I wandered on the sunlit, far-stretching hills; or along the still shore of the lake clear as crystal, smooth as a river; or in the shady groves, under the tall forest trees, my spirit grew full with ideas of the truly God-like nature and priceless value of a man's soul, and I gladdened myself with the consideration of mankind as the beloved children of God."—Froebel's *Autobiography*.

up here and there with considerable success. Finally, the curriculum of the English school varied enormously, and this variation depended but little upon the environment.

The same variation is observable in the American school, but the causes here at work are personal and not monetary ones. The school superintendent has his own ideas as to what should constitute a school curriculum, and these ideas duly appear in the school. There can be no doubt that the one efficient breakwater against fads and ideas in the programme is the presence in the schools of a professional corps of teachers, and the more professional the teachers the more powerful is the breakwater. In this aspect we recognise the German teacher's superiority over his rivals. There is no room for fads in the German school; on the other hand, no school falls so ready a victim to the faddist as the American. Whitehall probably saves the English school from a similar fate.

There is just one other aspect of school organisation in these four countries that calls for some consideration. In Germany, France, and the United States, conferences of officials and teachers are periodically held, as an integral part of the educational machinery. In England, when these are held, they are the result of private initiative, and receive no pecuniary help from the State.

In Prussia these conferences are held, some monthly, some yearly, but attendance is compulsory, and the teachers' expenses are generally paid by the State. The inspector or school councillor generally presides, and the proceedings last a whole day, and cover discussions on pedagogic subjects, and explanations by the officials of recent ministerial regulations. The day is concluded by a convivial supper, at which officials and teachers fraternise.

In France, too, attendance at these teachers' conferences is compulsory, and the expenses are paid by the State. The academy or primary inspector presides.

These conferences are held in each canton, and may be attended by both male and female teachers together, or separately, as the officials decide. The subjects for discussion are printed and circulated some time before.

We have already described teachers' meetings in America, which are also compulsory and free. In America, the purpose of such meetings is entirely different from the purpose of the French and German teachers' meetings, nevertheless, as the

efficiency of the American teacher increases, so will the value of these conferences be enhanced.

The freedom of the teacher varies considerably. In Germany he is subject to the control of the local inspector, who is generally the parish priest or pastor. The classification of the children is subject to this inspector's approval, and the general oversight of the school is in his hands. In some parts of Germany a teacher may not marry without an official permit.

In France, the primary inspector examines and classifies the children himself, and supervises in detail the work of the school, which he visits twice annually, without notice.

In America, the teacher is assisted and guided by the directions of the superintendent; she is told not only what to teach, but how to teach.

In England, the teacher is free as to classification and examination of his scholars. He has freedom of method, and to a very great extent of curriculum. Altogether, one may say that on the whole the English teacher to-day has greater liberty in the school than any of his rivals.

The Teacher.—The most thoroughly trained teacher in the world is admittedly the German. Oftentimes the son of a teacher, he inherits the traditions of the profession. One-third of German teachers, too, spring directly from the soil, and therefore the environment of the rural school is natural to them. We have already given the figures indicating the fearful understaffing of the German country schools and the poor pay of the rural teacher; nevertheless, he does not allow these depressing conditions to interfere with a loyal discharge of his duties. It is the opinion of all observers that the teaching under these unfortunate conditions is often of the highest character. Says an American author, "I expected to find in them results such as may be found in the school of an American backwood settlement, primitive in the extreme. But I was greatly mistaken. What I saw was admirable work and almost incredible results."¹ Besides his poor pay, long

¹ A German inspector thus gives us his impressions of such a school:—"I reached the village early in the day and looked for the school-house, which I expected to find near the church, but I could see no building at all resembling a school. After searching in vain for some time, I was directed by an old woman, in answer to inquiries, towards—good heavens, —what a place!"

"It was a low, mean, one-storeyed hovel with windows so near the

hours of teaching, and insufficient help, the rural teacher often feels the theological boot. As we have already seen, the local manager is generally the Catholic priest or the Lutheran pastor, and besides being manager, the cleric is often the "local" school inspector, under whose sanction alone the whole classification and organisation of the school is carried on. These local clerical inspectors, too, have the privilege of writing reports to the Government Inspector, who visits only occasionally, on the work of the school and the teacher, and by this means, if the teacher is not too loyal a son of the Church, his prospects in life may be considerably marred, as he depends almost entirely upon the Government officials for promotion.

The training of the German teacher is distinctly religious, and is intended to develop a loyal Churchman, but the experiences of after-life seem to weaken the hold of Mother Church.

It would appear as if the antagonism of priest and schoolmaster is general and inevitable. I was interested in watching, whilst crossing the Salvan lately, a priest and a schoolmaster, joint-shepherds of the flock in front, walking mile after mile together, on opposite sides of the road, without exchanging a word, the one reading his Breviary, the other *L'Intransigeant*.

The German teacher is very highly trained, and his course of training extends practically over six years.¹ From fourteen to seventeen years he is a pupil of the normal preparatory school, and for the next three years he is a student of the

ground that every passer-by could look in, but that dirt obscured the glass. Entering the low room I found seventy children crowded round a man whose appearance by no means corresponded with his wretched surroundings. He was evidently absorbing the whole attention of his scholars. Glancing at the time-table, I arranged for the examination. The teacher's questions were short and quick and went straight to the point, while the children's answers were equally prompt and complete, being always given in complete sentences. I put a few questions myself, not so much to test the quantity of information which had been drilled into the children as to ascertain whether they had learnt something thoroughly, and whether they were able to combine, compare, and contrast facts by studying them in their bearing one on another. The replies pleased me. It is no small credit to the master when shy village children execute the orders of a stranger with readiness and precision, follow his questioning with eagerness and intelligence, and give their answers with thoughtfulness and correctness of language and pronunciation." (Rooper, *School and Home Life*, p. 161.)

¹ See *Schools at Home and Abroad*,

normal college. The curriculum is not wide, but deep.¹ The teacher's knowledge of the history and philosophy of education is very thorough and sound. All German teachers are philosophers, and many of them are to-day enthusiastic Herbartians; consequently, the doctrines of apperception and interest, together with the formal steps, are often to be observed. A German teacher never begins a lesson without a preparation covering a recapitulation of previous steps, and completing it by correlating the material presented with the material of the other portions of the curriculum.

In no country in the world is the teaching on so sound and philosophical a basis, and nowhere else is the teacher so highly appreciated by the community and by himself, as in Germany. They are proud of their profession, and their country is proud of them; and well may it be. There are signs that public opinion in England is rapidly reaching this standpoint; for, until the office of teacher is looked upon as one of the most onerous and honourable offices in the community, we shall

¹ ANALYSIS OF A PRUSSIAN NORMAL SCHOOL TIME-TABLE.

Subjects.	Number of Weekly Lessons.		
	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
Pedagogy	2	2	3
Religion	4	4	2
German	5	5	2
History	2	2	2
Arithmetic	3	3	1
Geometry	2	2	—
Physics	4	4	2
Geography	2	2	1
Drawing	2	2	1
Writing	2	1	—
Gymnastics	2	2	2
Music (vocal and instrumental) ...	5	5	3
Foreign Language (optional) ...	3	3	2
Total	38	37	21

(See J. T. Prince, *Methods in the Schools of Germany.*)

suffer, in some respects, from a comparison with such a land as Germany.

But some German teaching is not above criticism. It has, so to speak, been over-developed. Teaching has become a fine art, and, like all fine arts, there is evidence of formalism in it. The teaching is sometimes too stereotyped in character, and that originality and resourcefulness that are characteristic of the finest teaching are sometimes lacking in the German teaching of to-day.

The weakness of German teaching is the lack of cultivation of the child's self-activity. No sufficient appeal is made to experience, the child is rarely taught to dig out knowledge for himself, and when he leaves school and teacher behind him he is helpless. However, he has fulfilled his obligations to the State, and may now with equanimity relapse into the blissful state of ignorance of pre-school days. School has but rarely engendered in him a love of education, and though he may be compelled to attend a Continuation School for a year or two longer, it is but a postponement of the joyful day when he will be released from this obligation to the State. No portion of the curriculum specially appeals to him. His manual dexterity has not been trained, nor a love of knowledge kindled by his school-life. He takes with him from school a respect for constituted authority (which, indeed, he probably took with him to school), a desire to do his duty in that state of life unto which it has pleased God to call him—no more, save perhaps a few gems of national poetry or song which he may be able to carry about with him a few years longer. Public opinion on educational matters amongst the labouring class in Germany is much the same as in other lands, and there is no higher educational enthusiasm amongst German labourers than there is to be found amongst the same class in England; but the German is more law-abiding, and perhaps his sense of parental obligation is keener, or, to put it another way, has not been blunted by too much being taken off his hands by the State. Still, with all this, the more one studies and thinks about the German teacher, the more one admires the care with which he builds up the new knowledge firmly upon the old, the honesty with which he performs his task, never allowing a sense of injustice or injury to interfere with the due discharge of his duties, the enthusiasm with which he is imbued, the high conception he has formed of the obligations of his pro-

fession, the candour with which he gives his opinion, and the self-respect that animates him in all his actions.

The graduate of a German training college does not receive his full diploma until he has passed a further examination in pedagogy at the end of, at least, two years. During these two years he is carefully watched and helped by his training college teachers. He is then appointed to a school, where, in some provinces, he is expected to stay at least three years. He possesses absolute security of tenure, and is entitled to a pension after ten years' service, and a full service pension at sixty-five. He is moderately well paid, and enjoys a good social status.

Women teachers have not hitherto received fair treatment in Germany. They come from a higher social class than the men, being largely the daughters of military or professional men too poor to provide the dowry so indispensable for a German girl's marriage.

These women have sometimes been through a middle or secondary school course, and have sat for the examination of secondary teachers, but have failed in some one or other subject, and so got only the lower diploma, that licenses them to teach in the primary school.

The training-college accommodation for women is also very inadequate, and even the men teachers in girls' schools are rather looked down upon by the male teachers of other schools. Altogether the position of woman teacher, or even of a teacher of girls, is not altogether a desirable one in Germany, but this feeling will doubtless disappear in time.

The head teacher of all girls' schools and at least one other teacher must be males.

It has been said that the French people lean on programmes; and although the official regulations are admirable, yet they cannot but produce a depressing uniformity in schools and teachers.

The French teacher has been trained for three years, but this training is by no means so thorough as that received by the German teacher, and the fact that the great majority of French teachers hold only the lowest certificate is evidence that academically too they are not so well qualified as the German teacher. In 1896-97 only 43 per cent. of the French public school teachers possessed the professional diploma—the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. The time devoted by the

French normal student to teaching in the practice school is about the same as in England, and much less than in German training colleges. The teachers are much more closely supervised by the inspectors, who visit the schools, as a rule, twice a year without notice. The classification of the children is in the hands of the inspector, as in Germany. In England and America this is left to the discretion of the teacher.

The French school is open from 8 to 11 A.M. and 1 to 4 P.M. daily, but these times are occasionally modified to meet local needs, as in Germany.¹ The half-day school, too, is sometimes organised to meet these needs.

In the lower and middle *cours*, or class, of the French school, there is an interval of five minutes at the end of each hour; for the advanced course there are two intervals daily, a quarter of an hour in the morning and the same in the afternoon.

The French teacher makes a fortnightly report to the parents upon the progress of their children. Corporal punishment is forbidden in France (as it is in Italy and Belgium), but other means of curbing the refractory pupils are not unknown. The discipline of the French school is generally good, but it is not equal to that of the German school.² Occupying a prominent place in every French school is the public notice of the law against corporal punishment. The law may be indeed an admirable one, but this public advertising of it in the school is bound to have an unhappy effect on both teacher and pupil. The power of punishment, like some of the most potent forces in social life, is greatest when least rarely resorted to. It is the reserve force in individuals and States that is most dreaded. No one knows the power of Russia, hence the awe it inspires. So in the government of children it is always dangerous to pull the veil aside and show the child the helplessness of his ruler. The good teacher knows that he rules by awe and respect, not by the cane; and in the best schools the cane is almost unknown. The cane is only for the weak teacher and the vicious child; until these can be abolished, the cane must be tolerated.

¹ As a rule, school is open in Germany from 7 to 11 in the summer, 8 to 12 in the winter, and from 2 to 4 in the afternoon. In Berlin, however, school goes on in the morning for from five to six hours, and there is no afternoon school.

² See *European Schools*, Klemm, p. 380; also *Teaching in Three Continents*, Grasby, pp. 241 and 262.

The English teacher, under good conditions, begins to teach, or rather assist, when about fifteen to sixteen years of age, and for three years spends half a day in the school.¹ The remainder of the day is spent at a special school for pupil teachers, where the instruction is given generally by university graduates who are also trained teachers, and under favourable conditions as regards equipment and accommodation. There are probably few institutions in the kingdom of the work of which less is popularly known than these central schools, and there are few institutions where sounder training is given by skilled trainers than in these schools. To compare the condition of the pupil-teacher of to-day with that of say ten years ago is foolish, and many observers and critics of the English teacher have failed to recognise or fully appreciate the revolution these institutions have silently effected.

The English teacher is said to have two years' training ; it would be more correct to say that under favourable circumstances he will receive five years' thoroughly sound training. The number of university graduates, too, in our primary schools, though small, is increasing, and a rapidly increasing proportion of English teachers are receiving what is practically a university training in our day training colleges.

The foreign observer, in criticising the English teacher, is apt to lay stress upon what he considers the poor discipline of an English class. This inborn restlessness is a national characteristic of which we as a people may reasonably be proud, and most chary in curbing. It is this restlessness that has carried our folk round the globe. Often this busy hum, this continual restiveness of the English class-room, is the surest evidence of the children's self-activity. Is it not preferable to the deadly stillness of a "well-disciplined" school? In any case it is not the difficulty to the English teacher that his critic imagines.

English training-college teachers and professors have long since known that the first lesson the future teacher has to learn is to maintain discipline, consequently this training receives very careful treatment from the first. Hence what to another teacher would be a task absorbing a large proportion of his energy has become to the trained English teacher a mere matter of habit largely automatic. Little of his total energy is

¹ See *Schools at Home and Abroad*.

absorbed in this essential matter. A German or American teacher would find practically all his energy required in merely securing discipline in an English class-room, but that would prove nothing more than that he did not understand the boys. The trained English teacher is, on the whole, a fair mean between the German and American teacher. His training has specially fitted him for the practical work of teaching. He is a master of the technique of the class-room and the practical details of instruction.

He may lack the deeper pedagogic training, the philosophical grasp, the ripeness so to speak, of the German, and also the vivacity and enthusiasm of the good American teacher; but, on the other hand, there is a thoroughness and conscientiousness in his work, combined with resource, which enable him to triumph over difficulties that would prove insuperable to a less practically trained teacher.

His initiative and resource are, I venture to think, higher than his German colleague's, and his technical outfit as a teacher more thorough than that of the American teacher. The incubus of educational tradition does not press so heavily upon the English as upon the German teacher, nor upon the American as upon the English.

His teaching is more oral than the American, but less than the German; he uses text-books much more than the German, but much less than the American. Finally, whatever may be the faults of English teaching, they must not in common fairness be laid at the door of the English teacher but at that of Mr. Robert Lowe, who invented the system of payment by results.

Fortunately that has passed away, and there is appearing in our teachers a finer spirit, a keener interest in the purely pedagogic side of their calling, a higher sense of the dignity, privileges, and obligations of their profession, which are full of the happiest auguries for the future.

Of the American teacher something has already been said. Between the best and the worst there is a great gulf fixed. The best of the American city teachers are admittedly equal to any teachers in the world in enthusiasm and desire to learn. They may often lack the pedagogic training of the European teacher; on the other hand, they lack the narrowness inseparable from the clostral training of the normal school. There is none of that self-sufficiency so characteristic of many normal-school

students. They are open to new ideas and experiments, and are generally keen students of educational works and journals.

On the other hand, the evidence of Dr. Rice¹ goes to show that it is almost impossible to gauge the artificiality, ignorance, and utter stupidity of the teaching in some city schools in America. We do not propose here to follow him through his investigations, but one or two of his statements must be quoted. "The professional weakness of the American teacher is the greatest sore spot of the American schools." Again, he affirms that children are placed in charge of teachers who "treat them with a degree of severity that borders on barbarism." Speaking of the schools of New York City, he says, "In no single exercise is a child permitted to think. He is just told what to say, and he is drilled not only in what to say, but also in the manner in which he is to say it." And he adds, "The typical New York City primary school, although less barbarous and absurd than the one just described, is nevertheless a hard, unsympathetic, mechanical drudgery school—a school into which the light of Science has not yet entered. Its characteristic feature lies in the severity of its discipline—a discipline of enforced silence, immobility, and mental passivity." He gives many other examples of crude unscientific method and absurd fads, which appear to justify fully his strictures. Yet one cannot help feeling that the writer's ideal is somewhat high for the present day, and that he fixed his articles of educational faith, admirable though they be, as his sole criteria. Judged by his standard, how many continental schools would be ranked as excellent?

The worst features touched upon by Dr. Rice have disappeared, according to later observers; yet there can be no doubt that an enormous amount of very mechanical teaching is going on in America to-day. This opinion is practically confirmed by Dr. Harris and other authorities, and it is bound to be so whilst the professional equipment of the average American teacher remains so inadequate and the supremacy of the textbook is unchallenged.

However, there is much to be said in praise of American teaching. In American schools language is carefully taught. The children speak out loudly and clearly, as German children do, and not as our children too often do. This is probably

¹ *The Public School System of the United States*, by Dr. J. M. Rice. New York.

why most Americans are much better conversationalists than English people. The children's self-activity is cultivated in the American school; they are taught to dig out knowledge for themselves. In every school the pupils are taught to use Webster's "Unabridged." Practically, all urban American schools have a fine library, besides which the public library of every American town provides suitable books and special accommodation for all children who can write their names. American pupils are expected to find out knowledge for themselves, and so the school library is an indispensable portion of the equipment of every efficient American school.

The helplessness of the American pupil in his teacher's hands is not evident to him, or to us. His self-respect is preserved and his self-resource cultivated. He leaves school ready to begin the real education of life, *i.e.* self-training, and naturally alert, ambitious, and confident, he develops into the pushful, resourceful American citizen of to-day.

The discipline is generally very good, but it is of a different character from that of the English or German school. No effort is exerted, even silently, by the teacher; she assumes that the interest of the lesson itself is sufficient to maintain attention. "The discipline seemed to me good in nearly all the schools I visited; less rigid than ours, and more dependent on the mutual goodwill of teacher and taught than on mechanical rules" (Zimmern); and Salmon writes, "The discipline appeared good, though corporal punishment was generally forbidden, or because it was. Still there was a difference. I did not hear any short sharp words of command, or see any concerted movements, except at drill. The tone of a class was more that of a big family than that of a small regiment."

Discipline is very largely a matter of the personality of the teacher and also of school architecture. Children as orderly as German children may sometimes be seen in the English school, and French boys are often as disorderly as English boys. Hence the extraordinary variety of opinions held by visitors to these schools. However, it would probably be safe to say that of the children, the Germans are most and the English least amenable to discipline. This is not because there has been more whipping in German than in English schools. It is a national characteristic. The German boy sucks in order and obedience with his mother's milk. It is his nature to be ruly, and of the English boy not to be.

Corporal punishment is allowed in both German and English schools, and is by no means unknown in the American school. This question of corporal punishment is another of those steam-cocks for sentimental souls. Many really very pathetic appeals are made to our somewhat invertebrate humanity on behalf of oppressed childhood, and the teacher is occasionally held up to public gaze as a tyrant. Those, however, engaged in school work know from painful experience that a certain small proportion of children are incorrigibly bad, and no merely moral appeal to their understanding is effective. It is the excessive use of this form of punishment, and its use by young inexperienced teachers, that are to be guarded against. The rod should be the last appeal—not the first.

In Prussia, quite recently, two teachers were each fined £7 10s. and costs, as well as the cost of medical treatment, for maltreating pupils, "such as pulling out of hair, boxing ears, which resulted in the destruction of the child's ear-drum, excessive caning, and other improper punishment of pupils." As a result of this and of the popular indignation the Minister of Education forbade corporal punishment by a teacher except when sanctioned by the principal or inspector. The principal teacher in a German school, it should be said, has no supervisory power over the other teachers—he is simply *primus inter pares*.

This order was so indignantly criticised by the teachers that it was first modified and subsequently withdrawn. However, the use of corporal punishment is very carefully regulated in Germany, and my own impression is that it is rarely needed or resorted to. The attitude of the German teacher towards his pupil is, as a rule, most paternal and sympathetic.

We have seen that in all four countries the teaching profession is tending to become more womanly. In Prussia 13 per cent., in France 55 per cent., in England 61 per cent., and in America 69 per cent. of the teachers are women; whilst in the large city schools of America the women are from 90 to 95 per cent. of all teachers. In France and Prussia the women are paid at nearly the same rate as men; in America the woman teacher receives nearly 90 per cent. of the man's salary; in England, however, the woman's salary is considerably less than the man's.

The fact that the profession is passing into the hands of women is not, on the whole, to be deplored. Women are the

natural teachers of the race. Nature has given woman a certain sustaining love of childhood, a full measure of sweet-breathed sympathy, a tender knack of handling baby fingers, and a keenly responsive soul that catches the full sense of baby cries.¹

The comparison of educational statistics needs to be made with the greatest discrimination and knowledge. The "standards" are so variable that it is almost impossible to make a direct comparison, or at any rate a comparison of real value. To state that the English male teachers and the American female teachers are the best paid teachers in the world may be true, but it is quite misleading; again, to classify the efficiency of a national system of schools by the average attendance is unscientific and misleading—yet such comparisons are constantly made. It is often the setting that makes the true false. Educational statistics are guides, not gauges. They help as to direction, but not as to distance. We have endeavoured to use them throughout this book in that spirit.

We have already given the figures bearing on the financial aspect of school work in the four countries. We have seen that in most respects America spends an enormous annual sum for education; but this sum, it must be remembered, includes the cost for higher as well as primary education. The figures for the cost of American education invariably refer to primary and higher work. No distinction is made between the common, the grammar, and the high school or teacher. Thus it is impossible to compare directly the figures for American education with those of European countries. Again, in the English statistics are included scholars' books, etc.; and in the French, books and sometimes food; in the Prussian

¹ "Rank paternalism has made its exit from the great human society, but it has yet a strong hold upon the school. It is only in comparatively recent times that motherhood, which, as Zmigrodzki says, has been the basis of our civilisation, has been allowed to exercise its best influence upon the scholastic microcosm. Paternalism and celibacy must be made to yield up the strong grasp which they have upon the educational institutions of the land, and the early years of the life of man must be confided to the care of the mother-spirit, which the individual man and the race alike have deified in their golden age. The mother who laid so well the foundations of the great human society, the originator of its earliest arts, the warder of its faiths and its beliefs, the mother who built up the family, must be trusted with some large share in the building of the school." (Chamberlain, *The Child in Folk-thought*, p. 236).

fees are sometimes included, sometimes not, and so on. So that until we know what items are included under such terms as "cost per head," "total cost of education," etc., these figures are not legitimately comparable.¹ Further, even were a definite standard obtainable which would include in each case certain items only, we should still be far from obtaining really comparable figures; for the figures would even then vary according to environment. We may say that at present the figures are neither definite nor constant.

A dollar is not four shillings in England, four marks in Germany, or five francs in France. In other words, the value of money varies. Further, the standard of living varies. An income of £100 per annum in Germany means relatively much more comfort and a better social standing than in England. It is not so much the purchasing value of money that varies as the standard of living. In Germany and France money is made to go further than in England. Life is simpler, and its needs fewer, in France or Germany than in England or America. It is true the English teacher is better paid than his colleague of France or Germany, but so is the English clergyman, the English doctor, the English mechanic. The simpler the life, the happier it is said to be. If that be so, one rather dreads to contemplate the future of the race; for the whole tendency of modern civilisation is towards complexity of life. The more highly developed, the more complex is the social unit and organism. The standard of living is rapidly rising in Germany and France; but for past years it has been behind that of England. Now a lower standard of living means of course a lower rate of wages. The community with a lower standard of living will compete successfully, for a time at any rate, with another community of a higher standard. In markets open to both it will be able to supply a certain class of goods, not the highest, at a lower rate than its rival. But this state of things is transitory. As a result of commercial prosperity the standard of living rises, its wage-list increases, and its advantages cease. These fluctuations of trade are transitory; the greatness of a people is built upon elements of national character infinitely more subtle and permanent—elements that no school engenders.

¹ It has, for example, been estimated that the cost per head of population for education is in America 10s. 6d.; in England, 9s.; in Germany, 8s. 6d.; in France, 6s. 6d.

It is now necessary to say something of the difficulties and the problems that these four systems have to encounter.

We are sometimes apt to imagine that our difficulties are peculiar and heavy, that our people are blessed with a fuller measure of incompetence and bigotry than other peoples. Our study will probably convince us that our difficulties are neither exceptional nor peculiar.

Two of the most serious difficulties that national systems of education have hitherto had to encounter, other than that native ignorance and stupidity to which we have already referred, are of a maternal nature—viz., Mother Church and Mother Tongue.

We have already referred to this claim of Mother Church on the child. We do not intend examining the legitimacy of this claim here; suffice it to say that the claim has been made by all religions, in all times, and in all climes. It will continue thus to be made unto the end.

The State objection to this claim is mainly a practical one. "The school is designed for all, but this religion of yours appeals only to some. Make your religion universal, and we will gladly welcome it in the school. It is not because we love religion less, but freedom more, that we refuse to compel all children to conform." That is the main objection; but some even go further, and assert that it is not, under any circumstances, the province of the school to teach religion.¹ This is, we are convinced, an untenable position. No weapon in the armoury of the teacher is so effective as suitable and appropriate religious or moral instruction. What a narrow view of the work is that which restricts it to the acquisition of facts! The child has rights of its own, quite apart from those of its parent, and every child in this Christian land is entitled to have the best training only. He must be placed *en rapport* with his environment. But what looms larger in that environment than the religious life? To deny children

¹ A. P. Marble, superintendent of Worcester (Mass.) schools, in the *New York Independent*:—"The State has nothing to do with another world. Religion has respect to a future existence. Distinctively religious instruction, then, must be left to parents and to the Sunday-schools which they may select. It has been demonstrated by experience that no political body can foster religion. Religion is a matter of the heart; it must be voluntary and spontaneous; it is spiritual. It thrives best by its own agencies, distinct from the State." (*C.R.*, 1888-89, vol. i.)

some form or other of ethical training is the grossest tyranny. It is not dogmatic catechisms that the child needs—these he cannot understand, they but blunt his spiritual nature; but he does need such a religious teaching as Christ taught, bright, sympathetic, and nourishing.

From the pedagogic standpoint the withdrawal of the religious basis of the school curriculum has a decidedly pernicious effect upon the whole tone of the school. It is most unfortunate that because men cannot settle their sectarian differences, the most effective and potent instruments for character building are withheld from the teacher's use.¹ The school is indeed much too small for sectarianism, but large enough for Christianity. "In England," said Thring, "we are cutting our children in half; we are, in our systems of education, so leaving out of count that love, and truth, and temperance, and joy, and sorrow, and love of God, and en-

¹ "*Religion in Education*.—Brother Azarias: Religion is sacred, and because it is so sacred a thing it should not be excluded from the schoolroom. It is not a garment to be donned or doffed at will. It is not something to be folded away carefully as being too precious for daily use. It is rather something to be so woven into the warp and woof of thought and conduct and character, into one's very life, that it becomes a second nature and the guiding principle of all one's actions. Can this be effected by banishing religion from the schoolroom? Make religion cease to be one with the child's thoughts and words and acts—one with his very nature—at a time when the child's inquisitiveness and intellectual activity are at their highest pitch; cause the child to dispense with all consciousness of the Divine Source of light and truth in his thinking; eliminate from your text-books in history, in literature, in philosophy, the conception of God's providence, of His ways and workings, and you place the child on the way to forget, or ignore, or mayhap deny that there is such a being as God and that His providence is a reality. The child is frequently more logical than the man. If the thought of God, the sense of God's intimate presence everywhere, the holy name of Jesus be eliminated from the child's consciousness and be forbidden his tongue to utter with reverence in prayer during school hours, why may not these things be eliminated outside of school hours? Why may they not be eliminated altogether? So may the child reason; so has the child reasoned; and therefore does the Church seek to impress upon it indelibly the sacred truths of religion in order that they may be to it an ever-present reality.

"Not that religion can be imparted as a knowledge of history or grammar is taught. The repetition of the catechism or the reading of the gospel is not religion. Religion is something more subtle, more intimate, more all-pervading. It speaks to head and heart. It is an ever-living presence in the schoolroom. It is reflected from the pages of one's reading-books. It is nourished by the prayers with which one's daily exercises are opened and closed." (*C.R.*, 1889-90, p. 1,171.)

durance of pain are things teachable, that we are, in our search for intellect, allowing national character to suffer in our training."

In Germany every school is denominational, and the priest or the pastor comes in to give the children religious instruction. Each sect has a school of its own, excepting of course in sparsely populated districts, where the children of different faiths receive secular instruction together. Each school has its own teachers of the same faith, and the text-books used by the children are specially prepared for them. Parents are allowed to withdraw their children altogether from religious instruction. This instruction of the German primary and secondary, like that of the English public, school is largely unsectarian.

The local control of the school is, as we have seen, largely in the hands of the local cleric, so that although all schools are State schools the hold of Mother Church upon them is still firm. It is to be noted that this system is obviously unfair to unorthodox Protestants, of whom there are a number in Germany, and it is obnoxious to freethinkers. The German socialists, too, resent this hold of the Church on the school, and the *Einheitsschule* cannot be realised until this hold has been relaxed.

In France all public schools are secular, and no religious instruction is allowed to be given. The French teacher, too, must be a lay person.

This is intolerable to the French Catholics, and so arises, as we have seen, a set of primary schools existing side by side those of the State. These private Church schools are inspected by State officials, just as the public primary schools are. "This inspection includes morality, hygiene, and the obligations imposed by the Compulsory Education Act of March 28th, 1882. It touches the course of study and methods of instruction only in so far as the same be contrary to morals, to the constitution, and to the laws" (Levasseur). These schools can be opened only after approval by the Government officials, and may be closed by the same power. All the teachers must possess precisely the same qualification as those of the public primary school. The schools receive absolutely no State support, yet they are not only flourishing but increasing rapidly in number, largely at the expense of the public primary schools. The following figures show this. In the

State primary schools the percentage of children of the total enrolled in all schools was—

1881-82	81.6 per cent.
1886-87	80.4 ,,
1891-92	76.8 ,,

At present about one-fourth of all French primary school children are being taught in Church schools, but in some towns the proportion reaches one-half.¹

In America the nature of the problem is almost identical. The public primary schools are secular and undenominational.² They consequently do not meet the needs of two great Christian bodies in the American community—namely, the great body of German and Scandinavian immigrants, who belong to the Lutheran Church, and have themselves been educated in the denominational school of Germany or Scandinavia; and secondly, the Catholic community, which numbers over twelve million people. These and other communities maintain schools of their own absolutely independent of State or public support, in which dogmatic religious teaching is given. These schools, however, differ from French denominational schools in that they are quite free from State or public control

¹ “A somewhat novel light is shed upon the ‘godless’ system of education at present in force in France by a quotation from the *Bulletin du Finistère*, where a curé is reported to have said:—‘We must not blame the law of 1882, but that of 1850, in which Falloux introduced prayers into the schools, and abolished them in the homes. In my time, before 1850, what was called the *prière en commun* was said at night before going to bed. In the morning the mother would not let the children go out without asking, “Have you said your prayers?” “No.” “Well, kneel down.” And then she would say her prayers with them. When prayers were made compulsory in the schools, the zeal of the mother slackened. “You can go,” she would say to her son or her daughter; “you can say your prayers at school. I have no time to say them with you this morning.” This she would say at first once a week, then two or three times, and then every day. When she ceased to pray with her children, she ceased to pray for herself, therein often following the example of her husband. The home ceased to be the religious sanctuary it had formerly been. This is all the result of that unfortunate law of 1850, and not of 1882.’ The abolition of religious observances in the schools, carried out by Jules Ferry, evidently did not tend to restore the ‘home sanctuary,’ but rather to uproot whatever religious feeling remained, or at least to divorce it from education, so that the two have now acquired a somewhat antagonistic position.”—*Practical Teacher*.

² Most of the States have by law forbidden the use of the Bible in the school.

of any kind. The number of children attending these so-called parochial schools was officially estimated for 1898-99 as 1,193,882 out of a total number of school children of 15,856,370, but in the large cities the proportion of children attending these schools is very considerable.

A Scandinavian writer thus records his opinion on the danger of this system of parochial schools:—"The system of parochial schools which the Scandinavian Lutheran Churches are endeavouring to establish is directly hostile to the settlers' best interests, being intended as a bulwark (and a most effective one) against the incoming tide of Americanism; for the public schools, with all their defects, have always served as a hopper into which all the mixed alien grain is poured to be ground into flour, the general quality of which is American. Parochial schools in which the teachers are of the children's own nationality, and the text-books sometimes in foreign tongues, and always foreign in tone and sentiment, can never perform this service, and are usually founded for the very purpose of perpetuating alienism and preventing the children of immigrants from becoming absorbed in the dominant nationality." (H. H. Boyesen, *C.R.*, 1890-91, p. 1050.)

In England the problem has been to some extent shelved by a compromise. The two systems exist side by side, equally supported and controlled by the State; but the Board school depends upon local rates for further funds, whilst the denominational school is dependent for its existence upon charity. The competition of course favours the Board school, with its local rates to draw upon. It seems a curious position for the State to ask charity for help in training its citizens, and like most compromises the one under discussion is illogical and unsatisfactory. It is unsatisfactory to all—to the Church, to the State, and to the child. To-day over half the children of England are being educated in denominational schools; the figures of average attendance are:—

Voluntary Schools	...	2,486,597
Board Schools	...	2,201,049

The solution of the religious problem of the school of these four peoples lies in the future, but we believe it will be found to be in some system of mutual toleration. We believe it not to be beyond human ingenuity to devise a scheme of moral and ethical training for little children which shall be suitable.

It is the moral principles underlying all conduct that the school should teach. Indeed, the school, to justify its existence, dare not neglect them. It will teach them not dogmatically or by precept, but by example, and by the creation of a noble atmosphere around the child.

Often closely associated with the religious difficulty is the difficulty that arises in the common school from differences of home tongue amongst the children. For many years this difficulty was felt in Wales and in Scotland, but a more enlightened policy, by which the mother-tongue of the child may be utilised and nourished in the school, has succeeded in minimising the problem. In France to-day, French alone must be used for teaching purposes in every school, despite the very large number of people in Brittany whose home language is Breton.¹ This policy is a consequence of the extreme centralisation of French administration and its consequent lack of response to local needs. In Prussia, where over 10 per cent. of all the children of school age speak Polish only, the Government recently endeavoured to make German compulsory throughout the kingdom, but it was found in practice impossible to carry this policy out; and if one may judge from the statistics, it would seem that the number of Polish-speaking children in Prussia is actually increasing and not diminishing. The following table is of interest:—

SHOWING THE LANGUAGE SPOKEN BY SCHOOL CHILDREN IN PRUSSIA.

Language.	1886.		1891.		1896.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
German only ...	4,188,557	86.58	4,268,909	86.83	4,518,645	86.29
Polish only ...	500,315	10.35	491,142	9.99	553,232	10.56
Polish and German	70,868	1.46	76,298	1.55	87,239	1.67
Lithuanian only ...	12,752	.26	12,625	.26	11,534	.22
Lithuanian and German	8,372	.17	6,863	.14	8,570	.16
Wendish ...	9,961	.21	10,488	.21	9,722	.19
Wendish and German	4,419	.09	3,090	.06	2,929	.06
Other Slavic ...	8,760	.18	11,042	.23	12,599	.24
Danish ...	24,088	.50	22,735	.46	21,971	.42

¹ There are over three million Bretons in France.

The Prussian Government finds the same difficulty in its persistent attempts to oust Danish from Schleswig-Holstein, and the result is that here, as in Alsace-Lorraine, the teacher is often looked upon, and despised, as a political agent. In the American common school English alone is permitted, the deliberate purpose being to convert this heterogeneous European mixture into future American citizens with the least possible delay. A French writer thus records his impressions:—"I have visited a good number of public schools in this immense agglomeration called Chicago, which increases immeasurably from year to year by an incessant tide of immigration. Half of the population are Germans; there are 70,000 Scandinavians, many Italians, Russians, Canadians, etc. Their children who come to school do not understand English, they are foreigners. It is necessary to transform them during the school years, and make good Americans of them. This has been accomplished with surprising success. After a few years spent in this crucible they are cast, formed; coming out of the same mould they bear the same stamp, have the same language, the same handwriting, the same habit of mind, have read the same books, sung the same songs, made the same movements; what one sees the other sees also; girls, boys, they are 'American citizens'; this is the word which is used and which is repeated to them every minute, and of which they are taught rightly enough to be proud." (Jules Steeg, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 590.)

To some extent it is this determination on the part of the State to crush out every language but English in its schools that has given rise to many of the Lutheran parochial schools. In these latter schools German is often used as the medium of instruction, and the whole atmosphere of the school is bound to perpetuate the alienism of the pupil from his new home.¹ In other private schools other languages are found with the same unfortunate results.

It is unfortunate for the State and the child. On the other hand, the professional politician, who is generally an Irishman, has acted still more indiscreetly; for example, in Chicago, with a population practically half of German stock, the authorities

¹ So intense is this feeling that sometimes a community insists upon German, etc., being used and dogmatic religion taught in the public schools (see Levasseur, p. 405), but a judgment of the Supreme Court has declared the illegality of this.

have passed a resolution forbidding the teaching of German in the public schools of the city.

The other problem that is common to these four systems is the problem of the rural school.

In all four countries the rural school is generally starved for funds. It possesses the weakest teaching staff, both as regards quantity and quality; its buildings are often old and inconvenient, and, as an institution, it is never popular.

It is unnecessary to recapitulate here the serious understaffing of the Prussian school, the poor pay of both French and Prussian rural teachers, the large proportion of unqualified teachers found in the English school, and the short session and extremely low equipment of the teacher of the American rural school. It is interesting to observe that the State helps the rural more than the town school in both Germany and France, and occasionally in America. In fact, these States endeavour to help those who need help most. The English plan has been to help those who need it least.

In America a large proportion of the children, particularly of the boys, leave school at about ten years of age. In England the number leaving between ten and eleven is, as we have seen, not one-half per cent. of the whole. In France a large number leave after eleven years of age, having secured (?) a certificate which exempts them from further attendance at school. In Germany only a small number leave before thirteen or fourteen years of age. In the English school, of the total number of children (3-14 years) enrolled, 35 per cent. are over ten years of age; in the Berlin city school (6-14 years) they form practically 50 per cent. of the total—viz., boys 49 per cent. and girls 50 per cent. Considering how poor the peasants of Germany are, and how tempting the services of their children must prove, one realises how great is the sacrifice this compulsory law entails. The French peasantry have failed to rise to such a law of self-sacrifice; and since the compulsory law was passed, numerous devices and regulations have been issued to soften its rigours. England is slowly rising to the standard of Germany, while America follows at a distance.

Although the German peasant has no great affection for the school and its compulsory law, yet he has faith in the wisdom of the acts of his leaders, his rulers; and the fact that such a law exists, and is enforced, places the Fatherland in the very first place amongst educated nations.

Finally, it may be not out of place here to make some observations on the amount of popular interest taken in education in these four countries.

In France and Germany the real interest taken by the people themselves in the working of the schools is bound to be small, for, as we have seen, they have practically no voice whatever in the control and administration of the school. The people who do take an interest are the educated and official classes.

In England and America every man is a ruler—each has to take his share in the work of ruling, and the first duty of every true citizen is to vote intelligently and conscientiously on political matters. The study of the essential principles of modern politics is indispensable to every citizen. Upon this study he builds his principles of conduct and life. He carries these principles into every action of life. His opinion of men and policies is formed by the application of these principles. Necessarily politics, being the first duty of manhood, occupies a supreme place in the democratic State. It is unfortunate if any sphere of administration is removed from the action of these principles and the play of their forces: it at once fails to attract the attention of the citizen. The very fact that the election of school boards in England is removed from the general play of political principles accounts for the apathy of the citizens. That the application of this principle allows large scope for the ingenuity of the wire-puller, and places the school at the mercy of the jobber, is an argument not against the principle, but for the absolute necessity of a wider training of the citizens. Of the attitude of the public in America we are told:—

“As to the attitude of the public toward the schools, it must unfortunately be said that in the large majority of instances the people take absolutely no active interest in their schools. I do not here refer to that form of interest which manifests itself on the part of the citizens of most localities in a certain pride in their own particular school, which they consider the best in the country, but which pride is founded neither on a knowledge of what is going on in other schools, or even in their own schools, nor upon the slightest knowledge of the science of education; but I refer to an intelligent interest, an interest sufficiently deep to lead one to follow closely the actions of the Board of Education, the superintendent, and the teachers, and to seek some knowledge of

the scientific development of children. If but one parent in a hundred would be interested to this extent, I believe that most of our flagrant educational evils would disappear." (Dr. Rice, *ibid.*, p. 10.)¹

Interest in education in a democratic state is a direct product of education. People need to be highly educated to take an interest in education, so that even in America the people who take a real interest are the educated classes. Moreover, the teaching class is more popular and less exclusively professional than in Europe, so that many people are drawn by possible contingencies into taking an active personal interest in education. Where you have the profession of teaching made up of such transitory material, you may expect to get a considerable proportion of the population becoming tinctured by the profession.

To take a keen interest in education needs a high standard of education, for it requires a high altruistic development, a large power of foresight. How rare this is needs no telling. On the contrary, it is the stolid indifference of the great mass of these peoples to all the higher aspirations that is patent. Were it not for the chosen few, who keep the light burning in the gloom, one might despair of the dawn. This mass of inertia, of indifference, is infinitely more perplexing and heart-rending than the noisy cries of the Ultramontanes.

"I felt, with increasing amazement, the unconquerable apathy in ourselves no less than in the teachers; and that, while the wisdom and rightness of every act and art of life could only be consistent with a right understanding of the ends of life, we were all plunged as in a languid dream—our hearts fat, and our eyes heavy, and our ears closed, lest the inspiration of hand or voice should reach us—lest we should see with our eyes, and understand with our hearts, and be healed."—*Sesame and Lilies*, sec. 107.

This indifference to the higher ideals is due to social causes. One cannot develop enthusiasm in hungry souls. The necessities of life, harsh and ugly as they are, kill the fairer flowers of imagination. The lives of the poor are too real with suffering, too instinct with pain, for dreams to survive in them. And the

¹ And an American writer, speaking of the interest of the general public in school work in Germany, remarks, "This is in striking contrast with the indifference of the people of New York." (Larson, *Prussian Schools through American Eyes*, p. 20.)

pleasure of sacrificing oneself for the future, or even for the child, must give place to the duty of existing. It needed a Cato to plant trees for posterity and secure applause from the literary. The daily task of the labourer, with its sordid and mean background, effectually curbs the flight of the man's soul. It is easy to sneer at his lack of imagination, his anxiety to utilise his children in helping to maintain the home, his respect for the pennies both of his own pocket and of the community, and the general narrowness of his ideas and his life. But in the good time his life, too, will become more beautiful.

The employment of children out of school hours has been touched upon. In Germany, as we have seen, recent and more exact statistics have fixed the number at over 750,000, and in England the latest statistics have doubled the number previously given, some 300,000 children being recorded as working for wages;¹ probably later statistics will swell this number considerably. For France and America I have no figures, but there is no reason to suppose that matters are better there. This is all terribly sad. These little conscripts of industry, who draw their lot at five instead of fifteen, are the victims demanded by the Moloch of commercialism. If there has been an increase in the annual holocaust of late years, it is due to the growth of the great cities. The poor we have always with us, and the poverty of the country is not less great but less conspicuous than that of the city. Wherever and whenever people have been herded together in cities, poverty has thrust her face on the observer. In past times she has simply excited contempt or pity. But to-day the development of altruism, the feeling of universal kinship, which is the essence of Christianity, has produced a sensitiveness in the social organism which makes it responsive to every demand upon its resources. And the more highly developed the more sensitive is the social organism.

To those whose hearts have often bled with sorrow at the sight of the sufferings of little children, this increased sensitiveness of public opinion must be very manna from heaven. The cry of the children has rung through the ages. Men and women have not scrupled from the earliest periods of human history to sacrifice their children on the altar of their own lust and appetites. Every man claims his right to man-

¹ Including, however, the half-timers.

hood, and every woman to womanhood;—childhood belongs to the child.

While making this claim of childhood for children, it is necessary to guard against a certain tendency to exaggeration. This question is only incidentally an educational one; it is primarily a social one. Too often are such questions as this proclaimed as educational in order to cloak socialist attacks on modern society.

The work of the school is to educate children and not feed and clothe them, but that work of education cannot be properly done unless the children are fed and clothed, and protected from excessive toil outside the school. There are, it must be remembered, other forms of excessive toil than working for wages.

In Germany I have heard teachers complain that the children come to school in the morning quite tired from the early religious services they have had to attend before school. In England, too, I have been told of the long hours before and after school that children of a certain religious persuasion have to attend at special schools for religious instruction. These children are not wage-earners, but this indoor work, like that of the little helpers in the home, is more fatiguing than that of running errands or scaring crows.

The effect of the school on the mental and physical development of the race cannot be discussed fully here, but that it will be far-reaching and momentous may be assumed. Never before has such an experiment been attempted. The effect of gathering every child of the State into the school for some five to six hours daily, and during a period of some five to eight years, must be such as will be new in the experience of the race. It must have a pronounced effect on the character of the people; however elastic the curriculum and methods, there must be a vastly increased uniformity in the national character. The types of life will be diminished—the variety of personality will be lessened. There will be an increased tendency noticeable for the people to think in certain definite channels. There will be fewer characters in life—possibly even fewer geniuses. It will need a robust organism to escape the stamp of the machine; indeed, none can hope to escape, but some will be less well defined than others. The school tends to confound knowledge and culture, it makes mental capacity the standard of culture. It makes a fetish of book-learning, and

forgets that there was much wisdom in the world and some of the best of literature long before books were known. The school sets up a false standard of culture; there are cultured men who are innocent of school-learning.

But the effect on the physical stamina of the race is still more serious. The child was never intended by nature to sit still and listen. No organism is so delicate, so fragile, as that of the child. In these early years the seeds of many of the diseases that adults suffer from are sown; and the basis of sound health is laid in youth. It is in childhood that nature calls for free spontaneous development, for growth in every direction. Every muscle of the child cries for growth by use, and every nerve protests against fatigue and excessive labour. Consider, then, what the result must be when children are aggregated, often in badly ventilated and heated rooms, and are compelled to sit quiet, as best they may, on very uncomfortable and unhygienic seats. The only muscular exercise they get is to drive a pen and wag their tongue. Some of the effects that one might anticipate have already shown themselves in Germany and elsewhere—namely, myopia, curvature of the spine, nervous diseases of all kinds, and suicide.

This is a sad state of things indeed, and should enforce the duty of the community to provide everything that a healthy childhood needs. No expense is too great to secure a robust childhood. For it must be remembered that if the schools are unsatisfactory the homes are worse, and much of this degeneration is due ultimately to bad social surroundings which in their effect appear in the school. Were the school fittings and training perfect these evil results would doubtless be obviated.

This chapter has brought out clearly some of the difficulties which beset any attempt to appraise systems of education and to evaluate them as concrete wholes. The fact is, as we have said before, the really vital, really valuable, really intrinsic characteristics of a system of national education, like the work of each individual school, can be measured by no statistics. All that statistics show is the direction of movement of certain quantities (essentially mechanical) in each system. The ideals of national character, which are the spiritual bases of the school work, are too varied and too subtle to be measurable. We shall be content if we have been able to paint four fairly accurate pictures, showing with some detail these schools and their surroundings.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL.

INSTEAD of representing the educational system of a country by a ladder, it would not seem unreasonable to represent it by three cones. We should then have the first cone representing primary education, with higher primary education at its apex; the second cone would represent secondary education, with technical, commercial, and other specialised forms of training at its apex; and finally the last cone, academic education, with professional training at its apex.

It is of course highly desirable, and indeed necessary, that the passage from primary to secondary systems of training should be made as easy as possible, but it must not be forgotten that this passage is only needed for the exceptional, not the average pupil.

The course of study of the primary school is intended for the average, and not for the brilliant pupil, and the complete course does not, as a rule, fit the pupil for a secondary training. The crown of a primary school course for the average pupil is the higher primary school. There is a certain class of society whose children as a rule attend the primary school, but who, mainly from financial reasons, cannot provide a secondary training for them. This class is prepared to make sacrifices greater than those demanded by the primary school. They are prepared to delay the withdrawal of their children from school for some two or three years after the completion of the primary school course. In America the high school, which is ostensibly a secondary school,¹ endeavours to meet the needs of this class, with the result that the real vocation of a public secondary school, to act as the intermediate step to the university, has been largely abandoned to private secondary schools. In Wales the intermediate school has so far main-

¹ The reason why there are no higher primary schools in America is obvious—class schools are not tolerated.

tained its secondary character, but probably public pressure will in many districts ultimately compel some modification of the curriculum in the direction indicated, as here again the needs of the few will have to be sacrificed to the needs of the many.

The need of the many is a finishing course to the primary school, and not a preliminary course to the university. This distinction of aim does, and of course should, undoubtedly seriously modify the character of the school curriculum.

The necessity for such finishing schools has been felt by all mercantile and commercial communities. It is the commercial and mercantile class that specially needs them, and it is to meet their need more particularly that such schools have been created.

It is obvious that these can only incidentally act as secondary schools, and should they endeavour to act so they are exceeding their legitimate sphere of action. Their duty in any properly organised system of education is *not* to prepare boys for the university, but to afford to the primary scholar some further training for the battle of life.

These schools have grown up and are now well organised in France and Germany, and some attempt at organising them in England has been made by the Board of Education under the recent minute establishing higher elementary schools.

In Prussia the need was first felt in the towns, and the municipalities themselves endeavoured to meet it by establishing schools to follow the primary schools. They were called by various names, such as *Stadtschule*, *Bürgerschule*, etc., but they have now been all classified by the State under the title of "middle" schools (*Mittelschulen*). They are mainly supported by the municipality, or city council.

Fees are charged varying from 12s. to £9 per annum, the average fee being about £1 16s. The annual cost of educating each child is £4, so that the local community has to provide from the rates about £2 4s. per child.

These middle schools are divisible into two classes. First, the true middle school, in which the child enters at six years of age, passes through the various classes—which correspond with those of the primary schools—up to twelve years of age, and then in the three top classes receives a special training up to the age of fifteen or sixteen.

The second class of middle school is simply an ordinary

primary school with its curriculum a little more extended, and is only permitted where local conditions are unfavourable for the formation of a fully organised middle school. This latter type calls for no detailed attention.

In Prussia there are no public *Realschulen* for girls,¹ so that the middle school has become to a large extent the girls' secondary school, and we find that girls form two-thirds of all the pupils in the public, and about four-fifths of all the pupils in the private middle schools. Of the teachers in these schools, women form one-fourth of the total in the public, and four-fifths of the total number in the private schools—much greater proportions than are those in the primary schools. The teachers possess a qualification higher than that required by the primary school.

The classes are generally about half the size of those in the primary schools, the teachers are better paid, and the school buildings and apparatus more suitable and complete. The schools generally possess a good library both for teachers and pupils, a lecture-room with a well-fitted demonstration table for science teaching, a room for weighing and measuring the children, a beautiful *aula* or assembly hall, generally furnished with a grand piano. As a rule, there is no provision for practical science teaching. There is often a fine gymnasium, where, amongst other exercises, fencing and jumping are taught. Some of the middle schools have fine premises. They have accommodation for some 800 children. They are built in four storeys, with sixteen class-rooms altogether, and each class has a maximum of forty pupils.

The women teachers are not allowed to teach more than twenty-four hours per week. The curriculum of the middle school should, when desirable, include any science that may have local importance, such as mining, navigation, or agriculture. Both chemistry and physics are generally taught, and also English and French, one of which is compulsory.

The teaching of modern languages is mainly oral, and very thorough. In teaching geography, special emphasis is laid on commercial geography. The head teacher is always a master, and one at least of the assistants. As a rule, these middle schools are separate for boys and girls. Here is a time-table

¹ There are a few *Gymnasien* and also many higher schools for girls, for particulars of which see Chapter XIII.

which gives the subjects taught and the time devoted to each :—

Branches.	Number of Hours per Week in					
	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.	Fifth Year.	Sixth Year.
Religion	3	3	3	2	2	2
German (including Literature and Composition) ..	12	12	12	8	6	4
Arithmetic	5	5	5	3	3	3
Geometry	—	—	—	2	2	3
Natural History	—	—	—	2	2	2
Physics and Chemistry ..	—	—	—	—	2	3
Geography	—	—	2	2	2	2
History	—	—	—	2	2	2
Foreign Language	—	—	—	5	5	5
Drawing	—	—	2	2	2	2
Singing	2	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	24	24	28	32	32	32

Many of these schools, particularly in the smaller towns and rural districts, are hardly distinguishable from ordinary elementary schools; but in the wealthier urban centres they are often quite as well equipped and supported as the secondary schools. Thus at Frankfort there is a magnificent Mittelschule for girls, which cost the municipality £20,000 and has some 400 scholars.

These schools are free from the worst features of bureaucratic administration. The State and its officials leave them largely alone, and they are inspected and supervised by the city officials only. No privileges whatsoever depend upon attendance at these schools. They cannot prepare for the professions or universities, consequently their pupils are drawn largely from the lower commercial and mercantile class. They are used as preparatory schools, being used by boys up to the age of nine, who then proceed to the Gymnasium or Realschule. These are essentially class schools, utilised by that grade of society that desires an education superior to and distinct from that provided by the primary school.

The following statistics, taken from Rein's *Encyclopedia*,

give not only the figures for the middle schools, but also for the higher "Burger," or higher elementary schools, in 1896:—

Classes of School in Prussia, 1896.	Urban and Rural Schools together.			
	Number of Schools.	Number of Classes.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Pupils.
Advanced Elementary Schools ...	847	3,965	—	117,596
(a) Public ...	394	2,750	2,891	97,230
(b) Private ...	453	1,215	—	20,366
Advanced Boys' Schools ...	386	1,857	—	55,507
(a) Public ...	203	1,318	1,355	46,656
(b) Private ...	183	539	—	8,851
Advanced Girls' Schools ...	116	969	1,062	35,995
(a) Public ...	116	969	1,062	35,995
(b) Private ...	—	—	—	—
Advanced Schools for both Sexes	345	1,139	—	26,094
(a) Public ...	75	463	474	14,579
(b) Private ...	270	676	—	11,515
Middle Schools for Girls ...	856	5,180	—	107,901
(a) Public ...	210	1,732	1,962	45,867
(b) Private ...	646	3,448	—	62,034

In France a closely similar type of school exists, with the same aim, and endeavouring to meet the same needs.

This is the higher primary school (*l'école primaire supérieure*). Of this school there are, as in Prussia, two modifications. First, the true higher primary school, with a head teacher and building of its own, and a course extending over three or four years; and, second, the "Complementary Course," which is simply an addition to the ordinary primary school with no separate head teacher or building. This latter course extends over two years. Our present purpose is with the true higher primary schools. These are established by the Council of the Department, subject to the approval of the Minister of Public Instruction. The communes must provide the buildings and maintain a fund for current expenses, but the State assists. The teachers hold special diplomas, and are paid by the State. Their rate of payment is considerably higher than that of primary teachers.

No pupil may enter such a school under twelve years of age,

nor without possessing the certificate of primary studies, and no pupil may remain in the school after eighteen years of age. The instruction, books, etc., are free, and, moreover, maintenance scholarships are given to deserving scholars.¹ In awarding these scholarships, besides scholastic attainments, the comparative wealth or poverty of the parents is considered. Those who most need help and show promise of best utilising their opportunities are afforded help. Every care is taken by periodic examinations, etc., to see that public money is not being wasted on an unworthy object. As the Americans would say, "It is useless trying to put a two-thousand-dollar education into a five-cent boy."

Every higher primary school must have a gymnasium, a special room for drawing, and a manual-instruction workshop.

The school must also possess a hall for study, a library, kitchen, and dining-room, and also a covered court for recreation.

The manual work for girls consists of cutting, fitting, sewing, laundry work, and cookery.

The daily class-room instruction is six hours, lasting from 8 A.M. until 5.30 P.M., excepting on Thursday, when school finishes at 12.30 P.M., and on Sunday, when there is no school.

The dinner interval is from 12 to 1 P.M. Singing and gymnastics take up an hour, and recreation and dinner two and a half hours daily.

No corporal punishment of any kind is allowed, and the only check on bad conduct is the weekly report to the parents.

The midday meal is supplied free of charge in the Parisian schools, and all the tools, etc., required by the pupil in the workshop are also supplied gratuitously.

Finally, it must be noticed that the pupil's continuance at school is dependent upon his passing the periodic examinations satisfactorily.

Curriculum.—The official regulations state that nine hours per week should be given to literary instruction; that is to say, to French language, literature, history, geography, morals, and civics; nine hours to scientific instruction, including mathematics, physical and natural science, and school excursions in connection with these; four hours to modern

¹ Half of the boys' and two-thirds of the girls' schools are boarding-schools.

languages, three hours to drawing, four hours to manual training, and one hour to music. Gymnastics and military drill should come outside the school hours proper. In the fourth year manual training and technical instruction may receive more time, but ten hours weekly must be reserved for the other subjects.¹

The annual cost of educating each of these pupils is much higher than in Prussia, varying from £4 16s. at Orleans, and £6 at Lyons, up to about £18 in Paris.

¹ TIME-TABLE OF HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS—BOYS.

Subjects of Instruction.	Total Number of Hours per Week.									
	General Section			Industrial Section.		Com-mercial Section.		Agricul-tural Section.		
	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	
Moral Instruction	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
French Language	5	5	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	
Writing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
History and Civic Instruction	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Geography	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	
Modern Languages	3	3	2	—	—	4	4	—	—	
Mathematics	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	
Book-keeping	—	1	1	2	2	3	3	1	1	
Physics and Chemistry ...	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	
Natural History and Hygiene	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	
Agriculture and Horticulture	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	3	3	
Common Law and Political Economy	—	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	1	
Drawing and Modelling ...	3	3	3	4½	4½	1½	1½	1½	1½	
Manual and Agricultural Training	4	4	4	6	6	2	2	6	6	
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	
Singing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Time not specifically appropriated	—	—	—	2½	1½	4½	3½	3½	2½	
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	

There is no *Section agricole*, and less time is devoted to mathematics and science in the time-table for girls; consequently, the total week-hours are somewhat less. In other respects the time-tables are essentially similar.

The number of pupils enrolled in these schools, including those in complementary courses, was, in 1896-97—

		Public Schools.	Private Schools.
Boys...	...	35,371	3,240
Girls	...	16,035	10,012
Total	...	51,406	13,252

Of these pupils 590 boys and 1006 girls held scholarships. The most promising pupils of those destined for a commercial career have an opportunity of obtaining the means of travelling abroad and acting as clerks, etc., in foreign cities for a year by means of special maintenance scholarships.

The candidate must be between sixteen and nineteen years of age, and, during his residence abroad, is expected to send monthly accounts of his observations, in the foreign tongue.

The after-career of the pupils of these schools has been investigated with the following results (1895):—

	Boys. Per cent.	Girls. Per cent.
Teaching ...	6.50	16.18
Clerical occupations or in shops...	30.90	12.87
Manual occupations	32.32	6.42
Domestic life	0.0	20.59

(Morant, *Special Reports*, vol. i.)

In England this type of education has been given in various kinds of schools with more or less success. Local grammar schools, private adventure schools, as well as the public higher-grade schools, have endeavoured to supply the place of a true secondary school and of a higher primary school. Recently an attempt has been made to co-ordinate and systematise the forces at work, and to produce some kind of order amid this chaos of curricula.

The higher elementary school of England is intended to fill the place in the English system that these schools fill in foreign systems. Only scholars who have attended the public primary schools for at least two years are eligible for admission, and such admission is subject to the inspector's approving the pupil as qualified to profit by the instruction. This

qualification has to be certified anew each year. Pupils may not remain in the schools after fifteen years of age.

Special requirements as to the premises and teaching staff are made by the Government, and the classes must not be larger than forty for each teacher in the first two years' courses, or thirty in the last two years'. Besides these schools there is another type of school which is in some respects similar to the French higher primary school—namely, the school of science, of which there are at present 183, with 24,639 pupils. The growth of these schools during the three years (1898-1900) is shown in this table:—

SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE.

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Students under Instruction.	Average Number of Students per School.
1898	159	21,193	133
1899	169	23,450	144
1900	183	24,639	134

Such schools must possess suitable science laboratories. The class must not exceed forty for theoretical, and twenty-five for practical work. In the elementary course, which covers two years, the subjects of instruction are:—

- Elementary Mathematics,
- „ Physics,
- „ Chemistry,
- „ Art,
- „ Practical Geometry,

together with one foreign language, and such other subjects of instruction as the Board of Education approves.

In America, as we have said, there is no school of this type—at least in name. However, it is stated on the best American authority that the English higher elementary school corresponds in curriculum to the high school. The vast majority of high schools are of this type, but they endeavour to some extent to combine the double duty of a finishing school for the primary school, and a fitting school for the university.

This higher primary school is essentially a class school, and consequently as class distinctions tend to disappear in democratic societies so will these special schools. Already in Germany the numbers attending these schools are diminishing. The boys go more and more to the Realschule, leaving these schools for the girls, who have no Realschule.

As the town primary schools become more efficient the need for such higher primary schools ceases to be felt. There is really no room for a school between the efficient primary and secondary schools. In England these schools often lead a precarious existence, loved neither by primary nor secondary teacher. It is better for a community to have good schools for all, rather than an excellent school for some.

NOTE.—The number of pupils who annually obtain the Certificate of Superior Primary Studies, which is the leaving certificate of the French higher primary school, is given on p. 108.

CHAPTER IX.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF FRANCE.

THE French system of public secondary schools is, like the primary system, completely organised and controlled by the State through its officials. The power of the Minister over the school is complete and effective.¹ The local authorities are *les conseils académiques*, composed of the academy inspectors, certain university professors and secondary school-masters, either nominated by the Minister or elected by their colleagues, two departmental (county) councillors and two municipal councillors nominated by the Minister, who may also nominate two representatives of private schools. This council completely controls the public schools and reports annually on the condition of secondary education in the academy. The public school is secular, but ministers of religion are allowed to attend, outside the usual class-room hours, for the purpose of giving religious instruction to those who desire it. The secular character and the rigid uniformity in the life of these schools have combined to lessen their popularity with French people, and as rivals there have arisen schools placing religion as the foundation-stone of their training, and under the control of the Catholic Church.

The public secondary school of France is essentially a class school; few boys pass to it from the primary school. Although a considerable number of scholarships are available, yet the

¹ So that, as M. Leclerc points out, French society is so constructed, and the method of training so organised, that every boy, whether he be the son of a professional man or the gifted son of a labourer, may go through exactly the same course, receive the same training, and be prepared for the same examination. For a century has this great administrative machine been working to produce uniformity of intelligence; and it has succeeded in stamping its standard upon each generation. In England, on the other hand, the chaos of the secondary school system has in it *la vie latente*; although even in England the *régime* of the public school has sometimes proved too much for delicate geniuses. (See *Les Professions en Angleterre*, p. 81.)

other expenses of life in these schools are so great as to preclude the possibility of a poor man's son entering them. Indeed the few who once did no longer do so; the higher primary school better meets their needs. The class that utilises the Lycée does not need the primary school. Their boys join the Lycée at seven or eight years of age and leave it at seventeen or eighteen, when they have completed their course and taken their degree of Bachelor of the University of France. A considerable number, however, remain on after the Baccalauréat in order to pass the Licencié, and so obtain exemption from two years' military service.

This diploma—the Baccalauréat—effectually shuts them off for the remainder of their days from all contact with that class of society which utilises the primary school. Without it the boy can enter none of the liberal professions; with it he dare not enter commerce or industry. It is an effectual barrier placed against any endeavour to find a more congenial or profitable career; and it is a gulf deep and impassable fixed in modern French society. A boy's future possible sphere of operations is effectually mapped out for him by his parents when at eight years of age he is sent to the Lycée. From this judgment there is no appeal. French parents are, like other parents, ambitious, and upon this only child of theirs they lavish all their generosity and build all their hopes. They know that it is this diploma alone that is indispensable to social prestige and perhaps success, and so they will stop at no sacrifice to secure it for their boy. Should he fall behind in his work, a special tutor will be engaged to coach him during the summer holidays.

The private secondary schools are controlled by the clergy. They receive no State support, and their curriculum is independent of official approval. Nevertheless their course is fixed for them effectually by the requirements of the Baccalauréat, which the cream of their pupils desire and enter for. Consequently they offer no great variety from the public schools: the same subjects are taught and by the same methods, and the spirit that controls the work of the two schools is curiously similar. The private school, however, utilises its freedom by offering special facilities for training in commerce and industry; and it is being generally admitted that these private schools are doing very important and useful work in this direction. They secure, too, their proportion of

Bachelors, but in the severe competitions for the Government schools (*école centrale*, etc.) their pupils do not compare favourably with those from the Lycée.

Of the public school there are two types, the Lycée and the communal college. The Lycée is a first-grade school, entirely supported by the State. It is located in the chief town, and is generally an object of pride to the city that is fortunate enough to possess one. Considerable emulation is shown by municipalities to secure them. The Lycée was first organised by Napoleon into two courses, and the present organisation of the school reveals the stamp and ideal of its creator. No system is so conducive to curbing individuality and to manufacturing obedient automatons. The Jesuit system may in some respects have been more subtle and comprehensive in its effects, yet that offered a moral foundation which this system cannot. The Jesuit system deliberately set itself to provide a new, definite, and recognisable individuality for each pupil. He was seized and carefully secluded from the haphazard influences of life, he was constantly subjected to a powerful but unseen moral and intellectual pressure; the constituents of the atmosphere he breathed were gradually altered, the oxygen was replaced by carbonic acid until the necessary comatose state was reached, and he was returned to life no longer a man but a machine, an automaton prepared to go anywhere and do anything at the superior's orders.

That is the principle at work in the French Lycée. There is no school in the world so effective in suppressing individuality. There are seven thousand Bachelors annually turned out from the secondary schools of France,¹ and it would be impossible to find greater uniformity amongst a similar number of young men anywhere else in the world. The life of these schools is of the most routine character. M. Lavisse assures us that even to-day the Minister's watch is the great regulator. The Minister knows that, at a certain time, every pupil is taking his recreation, whether at Dunkirk or Marseilles. This uniformity knows no latitudes. He knows too what authors are being read, for the teacher has no choice. (See *À propos de nos Écoles*, p. 73.) An old head-master of a Lycée thus describes

¹ Namely, in 1899, six thousand "classical" and one thousand "modern" Bachelors.

the recreation:—"The bell announces recreation. In one of the class-rooms sit for two hours children of twelve years of age, silent and motionless. At the master's bidding they rise silently, another order and they fall into rank, at a third signal they pass out to the court still silently, and, if the master is particular, with folded arms. The master halts them, the ranks are dressed, and at length comes the signal to dismiss."

The Lycée is organised as a boarding-school, and rather more than half the boys are boarders. The system of *internats*, though unpopular, is believed to be encouraged by the Government for some occult reasons. The remaining pupils—the day-scholars—undergo precisely the same *régime* as the boarders, and most of them dine at the school (*demi-pensionnaires*).

The Lycée is a school of from 500 to 1500 boys. The fees for boarders in the Lycées of Paris are from £44 to £60 per annum, and for day-scholars from £10 to £14. An annual sum of £2 is charged the day-scholar, and of 10s. the boarder, for the use of books; and this great disparity is held as further indication of the State's partiality for the boarder. In the provinces the fees are very much lower, varying from £3 to £40. The Lycée is generally well built and equipped. Thirty-three of the schools were specially erected, another thirty-three had previously acted as colleges, twenty-seven had been Jesuit schools, and the others had been monasteries. These two last lots were appropriated by the State.

The Lycée, as we have said, is very closely organised and controlled by the State. Not a moment in the whole day is the pupil allowed freedom for his own thoughts. The espionage of the Jesuit school is still encouraged in the Lycée, and frank conversation is impossible. There are no organised games. "They never play," says Guyau, "at least in forms above the third; they walk round a dismal court-yard, generally treeless, from right to left, in certain Lycées where gyratory motion, *sinistrorum*, is considered as antagonistic to discipline. This is Dr. Gauthier's statement. They never sing; shouting is a breach of discipline, or barely tolerated; it fatigues the ears of the master, or whoever does the supervision. Games of balls, bowls, skipping, leap-frog, quoits, etc., etc., are quite unknown. The boys walk round and round the narrow cages known as the playground; they crouch in the corners if it is cold or wet.

Justly do the managers of sectarian schools prefer violent games, in which the staff take part, to the malicious and suspicious gossip that goes on in other schools. Further, this recreation time is only two and a half hours for the little fellows, and only an hour and a half for the bigger boys." (*Education and Heredity*, p. 92.)

Can any one imagine a more dreary life for youth than this?¹ Compare it with the bright joyousness of the public school life of England. To Englishmen it is a lifelong pleasure to look back to the time of youth spent in the public school. Frenchmen have no such sweet memories. On the contrary, Maxime du Camp says that whenever he sees a troop of Lycéens he is filled with grief, and whenever he dreams of his school days he awakes trembling.² The result of this seclusion is that not only is learning made repulsive but the perspective of life is lost. The boy loses all sense of size and importance. He comes into life with a false idea of the significance of facts. The stronger mind never acquiesces in this constant obedience; and in such the ten years' training produces a hatred, often unreasoning, of all authority.

The second class of public school is the communal college. This is a lower type of school found in localities unable to secure a Lycée from the Government. They are local institutions, not State, as is the Lycée. They are financed by the locality, but the State helps. The teachers are not so well paid nor of so high an academic standard as those of the Lycée.

The State provides a liberal number of scholarships at these two kinds of schools. In 1896, for example, 3,315 scholarships were given to scholars in the Lycée, and 1,636 in the communal colleges. Exception has been taken to this extreme liberality, but a still greater liberality is, it is said, shown by the competing Church schools. In the public

¹ "I have read attentively a little memoir of the Stanislas College, relating all that is to be told about its routine and order. A sadder pamphlet in connection with boyhood could not be found anywhere. Not a moment's liberty, not an hour of honest gaiety, under the eye of the overseer from their uprising to their downlying. It is bad enough to think of girls so trained in convents, but as the world expects less independence from women, it matters less for them, though it matters much more than parents believe. But who can expect such an unhealthy system as that of Stanislas to turn out straightforward, manly youths?" (Lynch, *French Life*, p. 109.)

² Cf. Bodley's *France*, p. 126.

schools fees are remitted to sons and grandsons of teachers and professors.

Under the law of 1880 a number of secondary schools or Lycées for girls have been established, where the pupils are specially trained for their future lives, and in accordance with their natural aptitudes. The girls enter at twelve years of age, and the course extends over five or sometimes six years. The number attending these schools is slowly increasing, thus—

In 1896 the enrolment was 10,645.			
„ 1897 „ „ 10,843.			
„ 1898 „ „ 11,402.			
„ 1899 „ „ 11,994.			

There are inspectresses specially appointed by the Minister for the inspection of all such boarding-schools for girls.

Of these various kinds of secondary schools, we notice that a very significant increase is taking place in the number of scholars of Church schools, and this increase is largely at the expense of the Lycée. Here are the figures:—

ENROLMENT.

—	1892.	1893.	1894.
Lycées ¹	52,945	53,974	53,490
Communal Colleges (public)	32,508	32,709	32,421
Church Schools	51,087	51,377	56,265
Small Seminaries (clerical)	23,948	23,849	25,354
Private Establishments ...	16,306	14,028	14,214
Total	176,794	175,937	181,744

¹ "The same is true of public secondary instruction, which includes, as I said just now, primary and even infant classes. According to the *Annuaire de l'Instruction publique et des beaux Arts* for 1899, there are now 1,168 primary classes in the Lycées and State Colleges, of which 209 are infant classes, and 268 of these primary classes are in charge of women. In the Académie of Paris alone there are 53 women teachers in the public secondary institutions." (Evidence of Brother Justinus before French Commission, *C.R.*, 1898-99, pp. 1,113 *et seq.*)

—		1895.	1896.	1897.
Lycées	53,962	53,290	52,427
Communal Colleges (public)	...	32,161	32,224	32,412
Church Schools	57,250	58,506	62,188
Small Seminaries (clerical)	...	25,407	21,737	22,381
Private Establishments	...	12,011	13,599	12,813
Total	...	180,791	179,356	182,221

The number of individual institutions of these different types was in 1895 (and still practically is)—

Lycées	109
Communal Colleges	227
Church Schools	397
Small Seminaries	142
Private Schools	218
Total	1,093

The annual amount devoted to secondary education by the State was in 1896 = £819,289, thus made up:—

Administrative purposes	£58,400
State Lycées	438,080
Communal Colleges	146,151
Secondary Schools for Girls	82,018
Scholarships and funds for remission of fees	147,200
Total	£871,849

Organisation.—The Lycée has a staff of about forty teachers. The boys vary in age from eight to nineteen years, and are as a rule promoted annually from one class to another. An examination in each subject is held every three months by the professors. Should the boy obtain half marks in the first three examinations he is excused the fourth, which is the most important of all. The *proviseur* sends a report to each parent giving the marks obtained by the boy in each subject at this examination, and also a report upon the boy's conduct, diligence, and progress. At the end of the school year, and as a result of the

examinations, the boys are divided into three classes—the certains, the possibles, and the impossibles. For the possibles there is a second examination in October, which affords them a further opportunity of obtaining their promotion. These boys generally obtain the assistance of a teacher during the summer holiday to coach them. (Baumeister, p. 440.) Many of the boys are boarders, and the characteristic of the schools is the system of *internat*. The head-master of the Lycée, the *proviseur*, is purely an administrative and organising officer. He does not teach at all. Under him come the censor and the staff of tutors or ushers, one to about every thirty boys. These tutors do not teach in the class-room, but supervise and assist the boy in his work, and generally exercise a vigilant supervision over him out of the class-room. The tutors live on the school premises. The actual teachers (the professors) live outside, and do not come into any closer contact than that of the class-room with their pupils. Each class consists of from thirty-eight to forty-eight pupils. The teaching duties of the professors consist mainly in examining the prepared exercises and in opening up new steps for their pupils. They teach a certain number of hours per week, varying from twelve to eighteen, as specified by the State. Directly the lesson is completed the professor picks up his books, etc., and leaves the class-room. It is practically the same method as exists in the English university and university college, and it is to be noted that the Lycée in many respects is more akin to our university colleges than to our secondary schools. The whole atmosphere of these French schools is different from that of the English public school. The fine tone of the "house," the comradeship that generally exists between the house-master and his boys, the "family" sympathy that develops under the English system, are impossible in the Lycée. The government of boys by boys is unknown in the French school. What shall one say of this French dual system of ushers and teachers? Was ever such a remarkable dual control in a school? Education through instruction, discipline through knowledge, are as much expressions of the highest ideals of French as they are of German pedagogy. Yet this system deliberately refuses to the instructor the duties of educator; he must on no account leave the teacher's stool to sit among his children. The friction and play of mind against mind in and out of the class-room that beget character, and

indeed beget everything that is worth anything in school training, are impossible here.

The boarding system of the Lycée is entirely in the hands of State officials, but of the communal colleges it is in the hands of either the commune or of private individuals.

The discipline of the Lycée is admittedly of a most rigid and mechanical character, and the daily routine extremely monotonous and the tasks heavy.¹

THE DAY'S ROUTINE.

Exercise.	Time Occupied.	Total Time. Hrs. Mns.
Toilet	0 20
Class-room work	{ 8.0 to 10.0 2.0 , , 4.0 5.50 to 7.15 10.15 , , 12.0 1.0 , , 2.0 5.0 , , 8.0 7.30 to 8.0 10.0 , , 10.15 12.30 , , 1.0 4.15 , , 5.0	4 0
Study	7 10
Recreation...	2 0
Four meals	1 30
Total	15 0

The time devoted to study outside the class-room is very considerable. In the English school this time is devoted to athletics. The written work of the French pupil is very much greater than that of the English. He has more time for it, and moreover, as M. Leclerc points out, the French teacher does

¹ "And, adds Jules Simon, the master is himself the first victim of this mandarin system. They begin by imposing on him the programmes of work he imposes on the children; and before robbing the latter of their liberty, they take very good care to deprive the former of it. The greatest crime a master can commit in class is to be himself; if he is so unfortunate as not to follow the syllabus exactly, and not to conform blindly to official instructions and circulars, he is lost. He is conceited, and will never get on, and is lucky if he does not lose his employment. 'I do not attack him,' adds M. Simon; 'on the contrary, I am sorry for him, for in reality he is not in the class-room, where he is nailed for four hours a day. The greatest reproach I can utter against this overpressure is that by oppressing the masters it suppresses them. I cannot help feeling that these boys who go from French rhetoric to Latin rhetoric, from German to history, from chemistry to mathematics, are left to themselves. They are not helped at

not find his out-of-class-room hours taken up by housekeeping duties, and so is able to devote ample time to the careful correction of the pupils' written exercises. One of the chief complaints against the system is that practically no deviation from this prescribed organisation is to be found anywhere. This is indeed admitted, and many efforts of a tentative nature have been made to alter it, but so long as the present centralised system is maintained, this feature will persist. Both teachers and pupils are victims of this over-centralisation of education. The life of these immense establishments is the very embodiment of monasticism.

The supervision of the boys is of a most personal and close nature. The training there received is singularly inappropriate for life. The schools, in fact, differ in no essential respect from the Jesuit schools which were their predecessors. The State has supplanted the Church, that is all. These Lycées are probably the most effective instruments yet devised for substituting an acquired character in place of a natural character.

Rewards of various kinds are used to prompt and stimulate the interest of the scholars in their work, and in this respect the schools maintain the principles of the Jesuits. "The Jesuits have always counted upon the self-love of the pupil. The *Ratio* multiplies rewards—solemn distributions of prizes, crosses, ribbons, decorations, titles borrowed from the Roman Republic, such as *decurions* and *praetors*; all means, even the most puerile, were invented to nourish in pupils an ardour for work, and to incite them to surpass one another." (Compayré's *History*, p. 146.)

This appeal to indirect interest, however, cannot produce

all, because they are helped by too many people. There are professors, but no teachers; there are students and an audience, but no scholars; there is instruction, but no education. They make bachelors, licentiates, and doctors, but making a man is out of the question; on the contrary, they spend fifteen years in destroying his manhood. What do they turn out for the community? A ridiculous little mandarin, who has no muscles; who cannot leap a gate; who cannot give his elbows play, or fire a gun, or ride; who is afraid of everything. But, on the other hand, he is crammed with every kind of useless knowledge; he does not know the most necessary things: . . . he needs guidance in everything; and feeling his weakness, and having lost his leading-strings, he, as a last resource, throws himself into State socialism. The State must take me by the hand as the university has done up to now. It has taught me nothing but passive obedience. A citizen, did you say? I should perhaps be a citizen if I were a man." (Guyau, *Education and Heredity*, p. 137.)

the love of knowledge for its own sake, which is the great gift of the good school to its children. In England examinations are made to serve this purpose of stimulating, and there the same results are seen. There is no permanent living interest kindled. "Of schools in all places, and for all ages, the healthy working will depend on the total exclusion of the stimulus of competition in any form or disguise. Every child should be measured by its own standard, trained to its own duty, and rewarded by its just praise. It is the effort that deserves praise, not the success; nor is it a question for any student whether he is cleverer than others or duller, but whether he has done the best he could with the gifts he has." (*Fors Clavigera*, vol. viii. p. 255.)

But it is the machine-like character of the French school that astonishes one, the uniformity of administration and of organisation. That this great nation, perhaps intellectually the first in Europe, can tolerate such a man-killing machine is marvellous.

On Thursday and Sunday the pupils are taken for walks under the supervision of masters, and a very dreary walk it often is. On these days, too, the boys are allowed to visit friends. No corporal punishment is allowed in these schools; the punishments allowed are—first an appeal to the self-respect of the boy, then come bad marks. The task ill-done is set again, bad work has to be rewritten, special impositions may be set; the pupil may be deprived of his Thursday and Sunday walks and visits to friends, but he may not be detained during recreations. The more severe punishments are temporary banishment from the class and finally expulsion. There is a committee for discipline in each school consisting of the *proviseur*, the professors, and the tutors; and a book is kept in which all punishments are entered and shown to the *proviseur*.

The holidays of the Lycée consist of the months of August and September, twelve days at Easter, and certain other days throughout the year. So unfortunate in its effects must this system of the *internat* be that one feels loath to express an emphatic opinion upon it: one fears that there must be some virtues in the system that escape the critic's observation. However, most French writers on education are unsparing in their criticism. M. Maneuvrier, for example, tells us that the French schools cannot form citizens, and that they effectually

kill all initiative, energy, and will. It is in prisons that France nurtures her young citizens. There is a great contrast between the political and pedagogic institutions of France. For eight or ten years are these boys imprisoned and their power of resource effectually curbed; then, because they are Bachelors, they are allowed to escape into the world, where after some months of folly and escapade they recover themselves, or rather relapse into a moral weakness, a lack of will-power, which their school life engendered in them. This lack shows itself in three chief and morbid ways—firstly by an absurd desire for a “free life,” next by an unhealthy feeling of being oppressed, an intense longing to escape tyranny, a contempt for all authority, and lastly these despisers of authority are quite unable to dispense with it. In no country is there so little initiative, so little power of self-government as in France. (See Leclerc, *L'Éducation en Angleterre*, p. 62.)

The education of the Lycée is too formal and stereotyped. Education—the best education—is a spiritual growth. The real purpose of school training is not to impart facts purely and simply, but it is to impart facts and truths in such a way that the child may absorb them—make them a part of himself—that he may assimilate them, and so grow morally, spiritually, and æsthetically. He grows in knowledge of his environment, in self-knowledge. Education is in truth a development of self-consciousness, of self-control, of right judgment and will.

True education is distinguished from a pseudo-education by this growth of power, of resource, of liberty. “This education of liberty, this education towards liberty in our boys, we have not even begun,” writes M. Lavisse.

Hence a school which does not develop this power of self-resource, self-help, and liberty fails in its primary purpose. However successful it may be in imparting knowledge, unless that knowledge is truly assimilated, unless it can be and is immediately translatable into action, it is useless. Another school which is satisfied with less knowledge, but where that is turned to immediate use, is fulfilling a higher purpose. It is only usable knowledge that is of any use. As Thring said, “The idolatry of knowledge must perish or education cannot begin.” The French school with its excessive intellectual demands on its pupils, its system of surveillance, its dual control, its neglect of free games, its internal system so like a prison, kills effectually all initiative, all independence, all

variety of character in its pupils.¹ It is freedom and games that the French school lacks.² Napoleon gave this system to France because he had no room in his empire for independence of character. He wanted officers for his army trained to look above them for orders, and prepared for obedience. It is extraordinary, however, that modern democratic France should persist in this system, which has been condemned by her most distinguished educators. Democracy is the most conservative of forces. Despite all the attacks of its enemies, the Lycée, even as at present organised, will probably outlive them.

The Curriculum.—Since its foundation the public secondary school has endeavoured to meet the needs of the various sections of the French middle and upper classes. On the one hand the Government has organised a purely classical course, and on the other a so-called modern course, leading in both cases to the Baccalauréat.

The curriculum has undergone successive changes, and has reflected readily the somewhat evanescent views of the Minister holding the portfolio at Paris, and is to-day the subject of keen controversy in pedagogic circles. It is unnecessary to trace in detail the history of these changes, but the fluctuations of curricula and the permanent predominance of the classical tongues are brought out by the following table showing the distribution of time in the Lycée course leading to the Baccalauréat of letters:—

(CLASSES: SIXIÈME TO RHÉTORIQUE.)

Studies.	1865.	1880.	1885.	1890.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Latin, Greek, and French	63.00	53.68	62.80	62.53
English or German	8.05	11.41	10.00	8.23
History and Geography	9.40	14.09	15.00	12.34
Science	9.30	12.75	12.50	8.64
Drawing	7.00	8.07	—	8.23
Religion	3.34	—	—	—

¹ "He only is advancing in life whose heart is getting softer, whose blood warmer, whose brain quicker, whose spirit is entering into living peace. And the men who have this life in them are the true lords and kings of the earth—they and they only."—*Sesame and Lilies*, sec. 42.

² See De Coubertin, *Universités transatlantiques*, p. 379.

The Lycée began with concurrent classical and mathematical courses.

The most important subsequent change was that introduced by M. Duruy in 1865, which added a modern scientific course to the other courses of the Lycée. This special course, however, rapidly approximated to the course of the higher primary school, and so lost its purely secondary character. This change made it possible for a student to take one of three degrees of Bachelor; and as one of these—namely, that of science—necessitated one year's work less than the others, and could be taken without classics, it naturally attracted annually an increasing number of candidates. Consequently in 1890 this programme was superseded, and the present organisation established.

The Lycée is organised into three sections—namely, the elementary section for boys between 8 and 11 years of age (in this section the work of the primary school is covered), the grammar section for boys between 11 and 14 years of age, and the superior section for boys between 14 and 18 years of age.

The curricula of the humanistic or classical side which are drawn up to meet the Baccalauréat are of three kinds. (It should be noted that the Lycée endeavours to fulfil the function of the German Gymnasium and Realschule.) These are—(1) the Philosophical; (2) the Mathematical; and (3) the Scientific. All three courses lead to the same degree—namely, Bachelor of Letters, but according as the pupil specialises in one of these three his diploma is inscribed—"Lettres, philosophie," "Lettres, mathématiques," or "Lettres, sciences physiques et naturelles." The course is the same for all pupils up to the end of the seventeenth year (rhetoric), when the first examination for Bachelor is taken. In the next year (philosophy) a choice is made between the above three branches.¹

"The studies of the superior section may suffice to indicate the preparation required for the Bachelor's degree. They comprise in the third or lowest class of the section, the second class and class of rhetoric, the following:—French grammar, literature, and composition; German or English; history of Europe, and of France in particular; geography, mathematics,

¹ By a new regulation a choice is offered between parallel courses in Greek, science, and modern languages for the last three school years.

drawing, Latin, and Greek, and in the second class also the history of literature (Greek, Latin, and French).

"The full programme in mathematics, Latin, and Greek for the class of rhetoric (age 16 years) is as follows :—

"*Mathematics* : One and a half hours per week.

"*Arithmetick* : Revision to the end of square root.

"*Algebra* : Review and continuation to the end of equations of the second degree.

"*Geometry and Cosmography* : Solid geometry, including the sphere ; the celestial sphere, earth, sun, time, moon, eclipses, planets, stars, universal gravitation, tides.

"*Latin* : Four hours a week ; portions of Lucretius, Virgil, Horace, Cicero, Livy, and Tacitus.

"*Greek* : Four hours a week ; portions of Homer, Sophocles, Plato, and Demosthenes.¹

"After rhetoric comes the first examination for the Bachelor's diploma ; then follows the class of philosophy, which offers a choice between letters and science ; from this class the student passes to the final examination." (See *C.R.*, 1896-97, vol. i.) This course will shortly undergo considerable changes. Reforms recently promulgated will, it is hoped, produce greater elasticity in the curricula and methods of these State schools, and give the teachers more freedom and initiative, so that the diminution in enrolment (which is about 10 per cent. of all secondary scholars for the last decade) may be stopped. The recent Act against Religious Associations will, it is anticipated, assist in this object.

The following weekly time-table of the classical course of the Lycée will show the subjects of instruction and the time devoted to each :—

¹ "The requirements are more than enough to embarrass young men of the best endowments, and make their success uncertain, even though little is required in the different subjects. It is not desirable to expose such to the risk of failure—that would serve to endanger the recruitment of higher liberal careers ; therefore the examinations are really made very simple. Thus the able are sure to pass, but many young men who for the honour of the degree should be eliminated, pass also. Incapacity, ignorance, or extreme laziness alone fail. The body of bachelors continues to be a caste, but it is a caste discredited through the feebleness of a king who bestows the honour too lightly." (M. Boutmy in *Revue Bleue*, 1896; *C.R.*, 1896-97, p. 56.)

	Elementary Section.			Grammar Section.			Superior Section.		
	Preparatory Class.	Class VIII.	Class VII.	Class VI.	Class V.	Class IV.	Class III.	Class II.	Rhétorique.
	8 Years old.	9 Years old.	10 Years old.	11 Years old.	12 Years old.	13 Years old.	14 Years old.	15 Years old.	16 Years old.
French	9½	9	9	3	3	2	2	3	4
Latin	—	—	—	10	8	5	5	5	4
Greek	—	—	—	—	2	6	5	4	—
Modern Languages ...	4	4	4	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	(1)
Mathematics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Physics and Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—
Mathematics—Elementary ... }	2½	3	3	1½	1½	—	—	—	1½
Natural History	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
History	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	3
Geography	1½	1½	1½	1	1	1	1	1	—
Philosophy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Drawing	1	1	1	1½	1½	1½	1½	(2)	(2)
Total	20	20	20	20	20	20	20½	20½	18

(A. Baumeister, *Die Einrichtung und Verwaltung des höheren Schulwesens.*)

Besides this classical course, with its three branches after *rhétorique*, of classics, mathematics, and science, the regulations of 1890 introduced another course, called *l'Enseignement secondaire moderne*, which is the non-classical or modern course of the Lycée and communal college.

This course has been characterised as "literary, moral, æsthetic, and scientific." Its deliberate purpose is to provide a literary training with modern tools. Whilst the languages taught are modern, they are to be taught by the same methods as the classical languages. The literature and history will be taught, and the language itself will be treated historically and scientifically. The best authors in these modern languages are

to be read, and the historical perspective of these literatures will be fixed by studies of the classical authors *through translations*.

It is an interesting experiment. It has been held before that for the purposes of modern life and for ensuring a proper perspective for to-day, a study of the old-world literature by means of translations would suffice. This course in classical translations is intended, we are told, for "average minds—for putting average minds as quickly as possible in possession of those general notions which form the real basis of the moral and intellectual treasure of humanity, and so render them capable of adapting those traditional ideas and knowledges to the use of modern life."

At the end of this course there is a special examination, "Baccalauréat de l'enseignement secondaire moderne," consisting of two parts, and the second is divided into three branches—philosophy, science, and mathematics, as is the ordinary Bachelor's degree.

The weekly time-table for this modern course of the Lycée is—

		Class VI.	Class V.	Class IV.	Class III.	Class II.	Class I.	
							Division of "Letters."	Division of "Science."
French	...	6	6	4½	4½	4½	4½	—
German (or English)	...	6	6	4	3	3	(1)	(1)
Second Language	...	—	—	6	3	3	(1)	(1)
History	...	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Geography	...	1½	1½	1	1	1	1½	1½
Arithmetic	...	2½	2½	—	—	—	—	—
Mathematics	...	—	—	3	4½	4½	—	6
Natural History	...	1½	1½	—	—	—	—	1½
Writing	...	1	1	1	—	—	—	—
Drawing	...	3	3	3	3	3	(1½)	3
Physics and Chemistry	...	—	—	—	3	4½	1½	4½
Practical Morals	...	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Philosophy	...	—	—	—	—	—	6	3
Political Economy and Ele- ments of Law	...	—	—	—	—	—	2	2
History of Art and Civilisa- tion	...	—	—	—	—	—	3	—
Book-keeping	...	—	—	—	—	—	(1)	1
Total	...	23	23	25	23½	25	24½	26

In 1899, of the pupils of the Lycée, 45 per cent. were in the classical, 31 per cent. in the modern, and 24 per cent. in the elementary course; whilst of the pupils of the communal colleges, the respective figures were 28, 44, and 28.

The general supervision and inspection of the public secondary schools of France are entrusted to ten inspectors, whose headquarters are at Paris. This inspection appears to be, judging from the evidence of M. Lavisson, of a somewhat perfunctory and inconclusive character. (See *C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 1,114). The examination for the Bachelor's degree, which is the only examination that the French public schools specifically prepare for, is conducted by an outside body—namely, the University of France, and practically the teachers themselves take no part in it. A student may, if he wish, hand in at his examination his record-book, signed by his teacher, and giving a complete account of his school career. About half the number of candidates annually pass; thus, in 1892, of those in Arts 42 per cent., and of those in Science 56 per cent. were successful. Many of the candidates enter before they are really ready in order to gain experience and confidence. A considerable amount of over-pressure and cramming have occurred, and the evil results of this have been the subject of considerable discussion,¹ so that in 1890, when the curriculum was last modified, the opportunity was taken of reducing the hours of all the classes in the Lycée. As in the Gymnasium and the public school, the best energies of the teachers and the finest minds amongst the scholars are devoted to an intellectual training in the classical tongues. Only a fraction of the boys receive a complete scientific training. In the study of classics much attention is devoted to style. The study that calls for special notice here is the literary training of the Lycée. The French language and literature is most carefully and philosophically taught. The pupil is trained to know what are the elements of "style," of good writing in the mother-tongue. Neither the Gymnasium nor the public school devotes anything like the same loving and reverential attention as does the Lycée to the mother-tongue. Consider the result of this. In no country is the standard of writing so high. French prose is so beautiful that even in translation it is the admiration and despair of the foreigner; in its own

¹ See *Notes sur l'Education publique*, by P. de Coubertin, p. 40.

native garb it is like some Parian marble chiselled by a master hand.

The teacher of the public secondary school is appointed by the Minister of Instruction. He is a civil servant, and entitled to a pension at sixty years of age. As in the case of the elementary teacher, a certain proportion of this pension passes, in the event of death, to the widow. A deduction of five per cent. per annum is made towards this pension from the teacher's salary. This deduction is one-twelfth for the first year and every succeeding year in which an increase of salary takes place.

The necessary qualifications for the teacher depend upon the school and class in which he teaches. Thus the communal college requires less than the Lycée, and the lower classes of the schools less than the higher. There are practically four grades:—

1. The class of teachers who are qualified to teach the Elementary classes of the Lycée. The examination for these is open to persons over twenty years of age, and the subjects are: French, German, History, Geography, Mathematics, Science, and Practical Education.

2. The class qualified to teach the Elementary classes in the communal colleges. These hold the ordinary fully qualified primary teachers' certificates only.

3. The class qualified to teach the Grammar and Superior sections of the Lycée.

These are the cream of the French secondary teachers, and many of them are old students of the École Normale Supérieure. The École Normale is a State institution for the supply of secondary teachers. It is recruited by examination from the secondary schools, and it boards and educates its pupils free of charge. In return they promise to teach for ten years in public schools. No instruction in the art of teaching is given, but some knowledge of teaching is required for the examination. (See Kirkman, *Special Reports*, vol. ii.)

The examination for these teachers (*agrégés*) is competitive, and of a very severe character, and is said to be equal to that for an Oxford or Cambridge Fellowship.

4. The class of teachers who are qualified to teach the upper classes of the communal colleges. They must be holders of the Bachelor's degree of the University, or the

University degree of Licentiate, which latter is said to be equal to an Honours degree at Oxford or Cambridge.

Practically none of the secondary teachers have had any special training for their professional duties, but their academic qualifications are beyond criticism. The qualifications of the French secondary schoolmaster, both academic and professional, are closely akin to those of the English public schoolmaster. His knowledge of method is practically nil; he has earned high academic distinctions, but he would be hard put to it to give an exact definition of secondary education; and his ultimate *modus operandi* when he finds himself in front of a class will be based upon a vague recollection of his own school-boy days. (See *À propos de nos Écoles*, by E. Lavisse.)

The annual total pay of these teachers is as follows:—

LYCÉES (Seine and Versailles).

Professors of Elementary Classes: Initial £120, rising to £192.

Professors of Grammar and Superior Divisions: Initial £200, rising to £300.

PROVINCIAL LYCÉES.

Professors (Elementary Section): Initial £100, to £156.

Professors (Grammar and Superior): „ £128, to £208.

The salary of the teachers of communal colleges is:—

Class I. (Licenciates)	from £100 to £136
„ II. (Bachelors)	76 108
„ III. (Primary Teachers' qualification)	„	64	88

A further annual allowance of £20 per annum is made to *agrégés*, and to some of the senior *agrégés* a still further allowance of from £20 to £40 per annum is made. Moreover, all overtime beyond the stipulated hours of teaching is paid for.

This French school exemplifies in a remarkable way the virtues and vices of the bureaucratic system.

There is no painful period of waiting for the maturing of public opinion to introduce new ideas and new methods into the school. It is sufficient to seat oneself in the Ministerial chair at Paris. There is, too, that thoroughness, that easy

working, that economy of effort characteristic of the bureaucratic system. Here there is no confusion of aim, no diffusion of energies; all is co-ordinated and concentrated to the best effect.

On the other hand, observe the uniformity of the whole, the lack of variety.¹ Every pupil passes through the same mill and comes out stamped in precisely the same way. The machine is designed by Government officials, and is admirably fitted for the manufacture of officials, but men and women it cannot fashion. Its training absolutely unsuits for life. The "Bachelor" finds himself crowded out of the professions, and the feeling of caste prevents his turning to mercantile or commercial pursuits.² The classical training of the French Lycée, culminating in the Baccalauréat, appears to be singularly unsuited for the life of modern France. These young men, brought up on this classical pabulum, inhaling an artificial atmosphere, and developing intensely clostral attitudes, find themselves, when they leave the walls of the Lycée, in a world they know not of. They have been interested in the struggles of Philip, Alcibiades, Aristides, Cicero, Cato, and Cæsar; they have learned to dream of the loves of Sappho, Helen, and Cleopatra; they have taken sides with Rome or Carthage; they have sucked in the thoughts, accepted the ideals, tried to realise the faiths of Plato, Zeno, and Lucretius; and behold, this world they are thrust into is new, strange, and incomprehensible. They are surrounded by natural phenomena and social problems they wot not of. They are human anachronisms, the flotsam and jetsam of twenty centuries back stranded by the stream of to-day.

¹ "It is the administrative hierarchy with its tendency to regulate everything and to make everything uniform that we suffer from," said M. Bréal (*Excursions pédagogiques*, vii.).

² The result of this training is that France has become, in the words of a French writer (M. Antoine Albalat), a huge civil-service employment agency. To get a Government post for his son is the ambition of every French parent. The Prefect of the Department of the Seine had four vacancies for junior clerks and 4,398 applicants; 42 male teachers were wanted, and there were 7,139 applicants; for the post of surveyor, one vacancy had 1,338 applicants; and M. A. Fouillée tells us that for 250 vacancies in the École Polytechnique there are from 1000 to 1,700 candidates; for 40 places at the Prefecture of Police there are 2,300 aspirants; for 150 vacancies in the primary schools of Paris there are 15,000 candidates. Many are the women-teachers of France who have had, through this fearful competition, to drink the cup of misery and shame to its dregs.

Fortunately life cannot be entirely excluded even from the French Lycée; rays of it here and there penetrate and give the pupils some inkling of the real life outside.

NOTE.—Recent changes, consequent upon the Ribot Commission, give greater freedom to the teachers, emphasise the study of science and modern languages, and diminish the classicalism of the schools.

CHAPTER X.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GERMANY.

WE have seen that the most characteristic feature of the French system of secondary training is the *internat*; of the Prussian system, on the contrary, the characteristic feature is the *externat*.

There are, it is true, a certain number of secondary boarding-schools in Prussia frequented largely by the sons of the higher classes of society, but these are few, and compare neither in number nor importance with the typical day secondary school.

The cause of this contrast may be the fact that the Church in Germany, owing to internal divisions, has never exercised that predominance over the State and community that it has done in England and France.

This modern system of secondary schools in Germany practically dates from the battle of Jena and the ministry of Von Humboldt. It was felt by the King and people that only by a better and more comprehensive system of schools could the regeneration of the State be effected. With patient industry and untiring zeal the Government persevered in this work, until to-day the State is reaping the first fruits of a century of training.

To compete in the commercial struggles of the twentieth century the German people devoted the nineteenth century to equipping and preparing themselves for the fight. To-day Germany possesses a system of secondary schools which is the admiration of the pedagogic world. It is efficient and cheap, comprehensive and varied. It endeavours to meet the needs of all classes of society, and to a large extent succeeds.

All secondary schools are under the control of the State and are inspected by State officers. The State does not refuse existence to private schools, it only insists upon an efficiency at least equal to that of the State schools, and that the teachers

are suitably qualified and properly and adequately paid. The Prussian Government recognises the value of the private school with its greater latitude and elasticity.

The central authority of the Prussian system is the Ministry of Education at Berlin, which is also the central authority for primary and university education.

Next in the hierarchy of Prussian bureaucracy come the Provincial Boards of Education, of which there are thirteen. Each is controlled by the President of the Province, but his place is generally taken by the chief educational expert—namely, the Director of the School District in which the capital of the province is situated. The other members are also experts and officials. These Royal Counsellors are nominated by the Minister and confirmed by the King.

Each province is further subdivided into districts, of which there are thirty-six in Prussia, and each district has its School Board of trained experts.

The Provincial Board is the authority which deals with the "full-course" secondary schools—namely, the Gymnasien, Progymnasien, and Oberrealschulen.

For the six-years-course schools—the Realschulen and Burgerschulen, as well as the Volksschulen—the District Board is the authority.

The duties of the Provincial Boards are (Russell, 113)—

1. "The supervision of all pedagogical matters appertaining to educational institutions.
2. "Revision of plans and ordinances of schools and educational institutions.
3. "Examination of new regulations and the revision of those already in force (including disciplinary law, etc.); also giving advice for rectifying manifest abuses, and supplying apparent needs.
4. "Examination of the text-books in use, and, with the consent of the Ministry, the condemnation of unsuitable ones and introduction of others.
5. "The compilation of new text-books, which, however, cannot be printed without the consent of the Minister.
6. "Making regulations for conducting the leaving examinations and revision of the reports of the same.

7. "Inspection, supervision, and direction of those higher schools which admit to the university.
8. "Appointment, dismissal, suspension, and discipline of higher school teachers (excepting the Director)."

These Provincial Boards are the intermediary between the central authority and the local managers.

It is their duty to keep the Minister fully acquainted with the state of education in the province, and for this purpose a detailed report is despatched by them to him every three years.

All Royal secondary schools—*i.e.*, schools entirely subsidised by the State—are controlled directly by this Provincial Board.

The other schools, which are financed, it may be, by the municipality, or by a private community, or individuals, or by trust funds, are managed by a *schuldeputation* which consists, in the case of the municipality, of members of the city council nominated by the mayor, and in other cases by representatives of the "trusts." But the appointment of these local managers must be confirmed by the State.

The appointment of teachers to the latter schools is made by the local managers, but subject to the approval of the Minister of Education.

The Prussian secondary, like the primary school, places religion as the foundation-stone of the school curriculum. Without that there can be no efficient training—no liberal culture. It occupies the premier place in the curriculum, and is taught by teachers as ably and fully qualified, and of precisely the same professional standing, as the teachers of any other subject in the school programme.

No child can be refused admission because of his religious belief, and in cases where the school does not provide the particular dogmatic teaching of a pupil, the pastor may attend and supply it.

As a rule, however, each faith has its own school and teachers. The Jews have thus been able to provide themselves with schools and teachers of their own persuasion.

In this connection a remarkable fact comes out. It is shown by statistics that the Jews in Prussia manage to secure for their children an overwhelming proportional preponderance in the secondary schools. Thus of the scholars in the

secondary schools of the German States, it is found that the proportion is—

STATE.	Of every 10,000 inhabitants.	Of every 10,000 Catholics.	Of every 10,000 Protestants.	Of every 10,000 Jews.
In Bavaria	53	42	67	370
Prussia	45	27	50	333
Saxony	40	23	40	357
Wurtemburg ...	84	53	93	590
Baden	64	41	86	417
Hesse	68	50	67	333

The proportion of Jews is found to be greatest in the "modern" secondary schools. The Jews send eight times their proportional share to the secondary schools. However, the authorities appear to take suitable precautions that no predominance of Jews is created in the Government services, and hitherto no Jew ever appears to have succeeded in reaching the rank of officer in the army.

The Jew maintains his advantage in the universities. The proportion of the Jewish to the total population in Prussia is 1.24 per cent.

The causes of this large proportion of Jews and small proportion of Catholics are largely economic, though much must be allowed to a keen appreciation on the part of this race for education; in England some of the best primary schools are those frequented by Jews.

The Catholic population in Prussia is mainly rural and poor. As Professor von Mayr has pointed out, the Jews live in cities, the Catholics in the country, and consequently any comparison based upon the number of pupils in secondary schools of these two sects would be unfair and unjustifiable.

The Prussian secondary school is not free, nor does there appear any desire that it should be. Prussia is not a democratic State. In few countries in the world perhaps are class distinctions so keen as in Germany. We consequently find that each class of society has its own school with a suitable fee. There is the "middle" schools for the lower middle class, with an average annual fee of 36s.; next come the Real schools with a fee of about £4 per annum; and at the top

come the classical Gymnasien with a fee of about £6 per annum.

The sons of teachers and of school professors are exempt from school fees, and a system of scholarships is provided to enable poor men's sons to enter the secondary school. However, it is found that the other incidental expenses of the school are so considerable as practically to preclude the possibility of the poor man's son enjoying a secondary school training in Prussia. The tuition fees amount in the aggregate to a very considerable sum.¹ In 1890 the funds for Prussian secondary schools were raised thus:—

	Marks.
State Funds	5,545,020
Tuition Fees	14,327,590
City Funds	7,802,173
From School Property	1,903,304
Invested Funds, Gifts, etc.	<u>1,340,753</u>
 Total	 30,918,840

In 1871 the total cost of educating each pupil was 62½ marks; in 1892 this amount had trebled, being equal to 184.3 marks.

The total expenditure of the secondary schools of Prussia for the year 1899, as given in Rein's *Encyclopedia of Education*, was—

1. Salaries for Regular Teachers	... £1,651,506
2. Remuneration for Special Instruction...	84,424
3. Incidental and Administrative Expenses	327,545
4. Pensions (not yet known) ...	<u>—</u>
 Total reported	 £2,063,475

(C.R., 1899-1900, p. 768.)

Of the total expenditure on these schools, five-sixths is devoted to teachers' salaries, a striking example of the administrative efficiency and economy of the Prussian Board of Education.

The control of the State over the schools is complete,

¹ "Usually the amount of tuition fees in Germany is estimated at one-third of the total income of a school." (C.R., 1899-1900, p. 790.)

although only one-sixth of the school funds comes from it. This is mainly due to the Government control of the liberal professions, and the system of privileges granted by the State to the schools. It is essential that this fact—namely, the control of the State over the professions in France and Germany—be kept in view, in any comparative estimate of their school systems with those of other States.

There is considerable uniformity in the school buildings. Some of the modern “royal” schools, such as the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfurt, are admirable examples of school architecture.

The schools are generally built on the class-room and corridor system, and are plain, substantial structures devoid of any unnecessary ornament. The class-rooms vary in size, that for *sexta* being the largest, and that for *ober-prima* the smallest. The maximum size of class is fixed at forty. The school generally possesses a gymnasium, excellently and elaborately fitted up, a library for teachers, a library for pupils, a museum with a magnificent collection of natural-history specimens, and the newer schools possess also a laboratory, fitted up for practical work in chemistry. No accommodation is provided for practical work in physics.

The aula, or assembly hall, generally provides sitting room for about five hundred boys. The youngest boys, as a rule, do not attend the aula. The decoration of this room is invariably of a highly ornate, yet chaste, character. The panels are either provided with frescoes, or are awaiting an old boy and benefactor to supply them, and if not quickly filled, then the municipality or Government will supply them.

On the walls, too, are seen marble tablets containing the names of the boys who died for their country in 1870-71 on the field of battle. All the care of the masters, all the love of the boys, is centred in the aula. It is a happy day to the youngster when first he attends it. It is his ambition on the battlefield of war or life to carve his name on the marbles of his own school. No man dies in vain for the Fatherland; if he is a gymnasiast, his fame lives on the school marbles; if a villager, his fame is inscribed on the monument in the centre of the village.

Around the aula centre all those old memories which are the bitter-sweets of after-life, whether that be tinged with sorrow or success. Here in the aula the corporate unity of

school-life is first realised—the pupil recognises here that he is a citizen of no mean city.

These schools have the bareness of their corridors and galleries relieved by beautiful busts of great Germans and foreigners—Herder, Goethe, Schiller, etc. As intellectual sovereign of the German secondary school, Shakespeare reigns supreme. There is no comparison between the devotion and care that Shakespeare receives in the German and English schools.¹

Besides the class-rooms and aula, the school also possesses a special room for drawing, a conference-room, chart-room, assistant-teachers' room, etc.

The boys' library is generally situated in the basement, and is in charge of one of the masters, who receives a small annual allowance for the work. The utility of the libraries is much diminished by excessive regulations, as, indeed, is that of the natural-history museums. The teachers' library generally consists of some thousands of volumes on educational subjects in German, French, and English.

This system presents to the foreign observer what seems at first a bewildering variety of schools, differing from each other apparently only in what may seem like details of curricula.

We find in Prussia—

1. The Gymnasium, which is the classical secondary school *par excellence*. The curriculum of this school includes Latin and Greek, the course extends over nine years, and the privileges of those pupils who complete the course are many and valuable.
2. The Progymnasium is a Gymnasium minus some of its upper classes. It is a classical school with a six years' course. These are generally found in the smaller towns unable to support a Gymnasium. The pupils pass on to the nearest Gymnasium, as a rule.
3. The Realgymnasium includes Latin, but not Greek, in its curriculum. Instead of Greek, English is included,

¹ "It is gratifying to a British visitor to see on how high a pedestal Shakespeare is placed in these German schools. Our national poet is as familiar, if not more so, to the German than the English schoolboy. In conversation with our landlady, one of us remarked that he had been to the birthplace of Shakespeare in England. Lifting her hands in surprise, she exclaimed, 'Ach, haben sie Shakespeare auch in England!'" (Hughes and Beanland, *Special Reports*, vol. ix.)

and more time is devoted to French and science than in the Gymnasium.

The modern secondary schools, in which neither Latin nor Greek is taught, are called Real schools. In these, however, a training in linguistics is made the pedagogic basis of the curriculum; but the modern are substituted for ancient languages as the media for training. The normal type of Realschule is a six-year-course school, but in some cases a further three years is added, so as to obtain a full nine years' secondary school course. These last are called Oberreal-schulen.

Put briefly, the classification is thus :—

(a) Schools with a full nine years' course—

1. Gymnasium, which teaches Latin and Greek.
2. Realgymnasium, teaches Latin but not Greek.
3. Oberrealschule, teaches neither Latin nor Greek.

(b) Schools with a six years' course—

1. Progymnasium, teaches Latin and Greek.
2. Realprogymnasium, teaches Latin but not Greek.
3. Realschule, teaches neither Latin nor Greek.

The latter class of schools simply complete the first six years' course of the former class.

It is from the Real schools (Oberreal- and Real-schulen) that the future officers of the German commercial and mercantile army come. Of these various types of secondary schools there were in 1896 :—

Gymnasien	273
Realgymnasien	86
Oberrealschulen	24
Progymnasien	45
Realprogymnasien	71
Realschulen	73
Total	572

Or :—

With Latin and Greek	...	318
„ Latin but no Greek	...	157
„ neither Latin nor Greek	...	97
Total	...	572

And in the same year, 1896, the number of pupils in each class of school was:—

School.		Number.	In Vorschulen.
Gymnasien	76,078	8,976
Progymnasien	...	4,544	266
Realgymnasien	...	24,534	3,883
Realprogymnasien	...	6,465	969
Oberrealschulen	...	10,288	1,725
Realschulen	...	19,675	3,675
Totals	...	141,584	19,494

The following three time-tables will illustrate, more clearly than any verbal description can, the essential characteristics of these schools¹:—

TIME-TABLE OF GYMNASIUM.

Subjects.	VI.	V.	IV.	IIIa.	IIIa.	IIb.	IIa.	Ib.	Ia.	Total.
Religion ...	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
German and History Stories	3 1	2 1	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	26
Latin ...	8	8	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	62
Greek ...	—	—	—	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
French ...	—	—	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	19
English (optnl.)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hebrew ,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
History and Geography ...	2 2	2 2	2 4	2 1	3	2 1	3	3	3	26
Mathematics ...	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	34
Natural History	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	8
Physics, Chem- istry, and Mineralogy ...	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	10
Writing ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Drawing ...	—	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	8
Singing ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Gymnastics ...	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	27
Total ...	30	30	31	33	33	33	31	31	31	283

¹ For some recent official changes see *Special Reports*, vol. ix. p. 175.

TIME-TABLE OF A REALGYMNASIUM.

Subjects.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.B.	III.A.	II.B.	II.A.	I.B.	I.A.	Total Week-hours.
Religion ...	3	2	2	2	2	.2	2	2	2	19
German and History Stories ...	3 1	4 1	2 3	3	3	3	3	3	3	28
Latin ...	8	8	7	4	4	3	3	3	3	43
French ...	—	—	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	31
English ...	—	—	—	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
History and Geography ...	2 2	2 2	2 4	2 4	2 4	2 1	3	3	3	28
Mathematics ...	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	42
Natural History ...	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	12
Physics ...	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	3	3	12
Chemistry and Mineralogy ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	6
Writing ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Drawing ...	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Singing ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Gymnastics ...	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	27
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Totals ...	30	30	32	33	33	33	33	33	33	290

TIME-TABLE OF AN OBERREALSCHULE.

Subjects.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.B.	III.A.	II.B.	II.A.	I.B.	I.A.	Total Week-hours.
Religion ...	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
German and History Stories ...	4 1	5 1	3 4	4	3	3	3	4	4	34
French ...	6	6	6	6	6	5	4	4	4	47
English ...	—	—	—	5	4	4	4	4	4	25
History and Geography ...	2 2	2 2	2 4	2 4	2 4	2 1	3	3	3	28
Mathematics ...	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	47
Natural History ...	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	12
Physics ...	—	—	—	—	2	2	3	3	3	13
Chemistry and Mineralogy ...	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	3	3	11
Writing ...	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Freehand Drawing ...	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Singing ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Gymnastics ...	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	27
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Totals ...	30	30	31	33	33	33	33	33	33	289

Although the variety of type in the Prussian secondary school has largely arisen in response to the many diversified interests of a great modern community, and supplies the special needs of different classes of that society, it must not therefore be supposed that this variety is due entirely to social and not at all to pedagogic needs. Such a system, it is true, tends to perpetuate, and indeed accentuate, existing cleavages in society; nevertheless its alternative—namely, a common secondary school for all classes of society with concurrent curricula—though possibly a social, is by no means a pedagogic ideal. The solidarity of curriculum so essential to the perfect efficiency of the school, particularly when considered as a training-field for life, is seriously impaired by diversity of aim. There is in such a school a lack of intension, energy is dissipated and not concentrated.¹

On the other hand, the Prussian system, with its appended privileges for different schools, tends to produce an unhappy and unfortunate ambition which leads to the cultivation not of those abilities the Creator has endowed the pupil with, but of those which lead to the highest social prestige and position. The system tends to make all clever boys gymnasiasts. The best intellect of Germany finds its only training-ground in the classical school. It is only the inferior minds that as a rule are found in the Real schools. This is not only a practical loss to commercial and industrial Germany, but it is an intellectual loss to the whole State. At nine years of age, too, a boy's future is fixed. To obviate the evils of this certain schools have adopted a common curriculum up to twelve, so as to delay the fateful choice.

It is this that has doubtless led some of the leading educators to advocate the common secondary school, "and among the most remarkable signs of change in Prussian secondary education is the tendency to favour combinations of curricula in order to meet with the economy of a single

¹ M. Bréal has pointed out, to those who object to this differentiation of schools as contrary to the democratic ideal, that all children do not receive a secondary education, and that between the education of the boy who leaves the primary school at twelve, and that of the pupil of the Lycée, there is a great difference. Modern life, with its diversified needs, requires varied systems of training without too much attention being given to possible transfers from one system to another. (*Excursions pédagogiques*, p. 165.)

institution a variety of local needs. Let it be said at once, however, that composite arrangements of this kind are a very different thing when they are consciously designed and scientifically watched as duly authorised experimental deviations from a normal pattern, from what they are when they are allowed to grow up casually and anyhow, without any conscious reference to underlying principle, and without any care being taken to arrange the conditions, and to record the outcome of each permitted experiment." (*Special Reports*, vol. iii. p. 200.) Mr. Sadler thus emphasises the distinction between a school having a solidarity and a scientific unity in its curriculum and the school which we so well know at home, whose curriculum is a fortuitous aggregation of subjects fixed by the exigencies of outside examinations or the caprice of parents.

The age of admission to the secondary school is nine years. Between the ages of six and nine, boys in Prussia generally attend a preparatory school (*Vorschule*), attached to the secondary school, and under the supervision of the Director. The teachers are, as a rule, primary school teachers.¹ In Berlin the boys attend the ordinary *Volksschulen*, and in Baden, Bavaria, and Wurtemburg there are no *Vorschulen*.

The admission of boys to the secondary school takes place twice annually—viz., at Michaelmas and at Easter—and the promotions from one class to another are made annually.

The lower classes are divided into two sections—namely, boys admitted at Michaelmas and boys admitted at Easter. The annual promotion much facilitates the organisation of the school.

In Germany the class system is firmly established. The specialist as teacher is not popular. Each teacher takes his class in all subjects, excepting, of course, special technical subjects. Even the gymnastics is taken by the form master, if he is qualified.² The teacher is, as a rule, promoted annually with his pupils, so that his knowledge of them becomes very intimate and close.

At the commencement of each session the teacher selects one of his pupils as *Primus*, whose duties are those of a class prefect.

¹ The number of pupils in the *Vorschulen* has already been given on p. 243.

² A special qualification is required for the teaching of gymnastics.

When the teacher enters the class-room the boys all stand until requested to seat themselves. The discipline is excellent, but of the strictly military type.

Short and sharp are the teacher's orders, and the boys obey with a precision and agility elsewhere only seen on the German drill-ground.

A very large number of the Prussian secondary teachers are officers in the army reserve, and the effect of this has been to introduce the army *régime* into the school. Nevertheless, the "atmosphere" is by no means unpleasant.

This strict discipline, if not actually congenial, is certainly not unpleasant to the boys. They appear quite at ease, and the cloistral atmosphere of the large boarding-schools of other countries is conspicuous by its absence. There is a more homely atmosphere here, despite the military discipline and the professional aloofness of the teacher. The gulf between home and school, though deep, is not impassable.

The school begins daily in the summer at 7 A.M. and goes on to 11 A.M.; in the winter the hours are 8 to 12 noon. There is also an afternoon session, from 2 to 5 P.M., excepting on Wednesday and Saturday, when a half-holiday affords some relief to the jaded mind of the pupil. Each lesson is one hour long, with, however, an interval of five minutes between each. But there is, both in the morning and afternoon, an interval of a quarter of an hour, during which time the boys go out to the playground, and the windows of the class-room are opened for much-needed ventilation. German lads rarely play. The playground is generally very small, and divided into little plots for each class. The games occasionally played are of a very mild character. German schoolmasters do not care to see their pupils perspiring. I remember a head-master growling to me as we sauntered up and down the playground, "Look at the cattle." The boys were warm after their gentle game of "rounders," and were drinking at the school pump. The German lad has no school games, whereas in England, and to a less extent in America, these are a very essential part of the school training. The animal spirits and wild exuberance seen in the English playing-fields are unknown in the German playground. Attempts have recently been made in Frankfurt and other cities, by the appointment of special organisers, to develop these games, but hitherto with indifferent success. The boys

do not take kindly to them. They are quieter and more reserved than the English boy. No greater contrast can be seen anywhere than a game of Rugby football as played by German and by English boys. That is the key of the position. It is here that the ideals and characteristics of the two peoples come into sharp contrast. The German takes kindly to books and unkindly to games, the Englishman takes kindly to games and unkindly to books. Now, it may be prejudice, but I believe that no books in the world are as valuable as games for the direct development of character. The virtues engendered in the playing-field are of the most permanent and valuable nature. It is by these games, by these struggles for supremacy, that the individuality of the Saxon is nurtured. The German Emperor himself is throwing the whole weight of his authority into the movement for diminishing the study hours and increasing the leisure hours of the much-taught German boys.

The school hours are very long, and when to these are added from two to six hours required for home tasks, one ceases to wonder that suicide of school children is assuming alarming proportions. The high educational efficiency of German youth is worth much, but it is not worth the price of a debilitated manhood.

An old pupil of a gymnasium was the other day detailing to me his daily routine. There are the long school hours, the rush home on the tramcar, a meal bolted in quarter of an hour, then home-tasks with a specially engaged teacher to help him in his work. Parents know how much is expected and they will stop at no sacrifice; so the home-tutor is engaged to torment the wretched youth for the remainder of the day. Some eight or nine hours are left for sleep and recreation. "And yet," said my companion, "it is surprising how little of this hardly acquired knowledge is at our disposal when we have finished and are *ripe!*"

Germany is to-day busily educating youth out of life. What permanent national capital are these bespectacled, anaemic youths? The school is killing the vigorous manhood of old Germany.¹

¹ "By education we usually mean the word-cram and mind-deformation that characterise many of our schools, whereas we ought to include every lesson, exercise, game, play, sport, or occupation that develops and improves our mental and bodily powers. There is as much education in

This state of things has aroused the indignation of the Emperor. "I am looking for soldiers," said he. The country has more than enough of these premature savants. What profiteth it the Fatherland if its youth gain the whole world of knowledge and lose that physical stamina which is the ultimate basis of permanent national strength? The future lies with the nation of big families, not of big heads. Germany in seizing the Athenian crown dropped the Olympian wreath.

"It was found that near-sightedness increased, not only from class to class, but that its increase could be noted from the beginning of a school year to its close. In the Frankfurt Gymnasium 4 per cent. of the scholars were found to be myopic in the lowest class, and 64 per cent in *Prima*.

"Of 1,600 newly enlisted soldiers examined in Munich only 2 per cent. of the country lads from the Volksschulen were found to be near-sighted. Common labourers trained in the city schools showed from 4 to 9 per cent.; clerks, merchants, book-keepers, etc., 44 per cent.; graduates of Realschulen, 58 per cent., and graduates of Gymnasien, 65 per cent." (Russell, *German Higher Schools*, p. 159.)

Recently it has been shown, too, that of the pupils in the secondary schools of Düsseldorf, one-fourth of them were below the normal; "one-tenth of the number in the lower grades of intermediate and secondary schools suffer from nervousness, which, with all its attendant effects, increases to an alarming extent in the higher grades, in single cases as high as 60 per cent., whereas 20 per cent. are victims of insomnia." (C.R., 1899-1900, p. 833.)

Of the boys who enter at nine years of age only a certain proportion complete the school course; 39.3 per cent. drop out before they complete even the six years needed to obtain the certificate of military exemption. A certain proportion, too, have to take two years in the upper classes to complete the work required, so that of those who complete the course the average age is considerably above eighteen. In fact, the top class of the Gymnasium is composed of young men who in England would be university undergraduates. Indeed, Mr.

playing (not in watching) a game of football as in construing a book of Virgil. Who shall say that training in rhythmic action and gracefulness shall not have places in school beside percentage and syntax?"—E. W. Scripture in the *Forum*. (C.R., 1892-93, p. 380.)

Matthew Arnold considered this leaving examination of the Gymnasium as equivalent to that required for a university degree in England. The following tables are of interest. The first gives the number of scholars who sat for the leaving examination in 1895-96 and their ages. (Quoted by M. E. Sadler, *Special Reports*, vol. iii. p. 126.)

Type of School.	(Including External Scholars.)							
	Number of Candidates who sat for the Leaving Examination.	Number of Candidates who obtained the Leaving Certificate.	Number of Successful Candidates who were					
			Under 17 Years.	Between 17 and 18	Between 18 and 19	Between 19 and 20	Between 20 and 21	Over 21 Years.
Gymnasien ...	4,447	4,243	7	154	837	1,297	962	986
Realgymnasien ...	786	760	—	29	213	254	168	96
Oberrealschulen...	160	154	—	6	36	46	41	25

The second table gives the number of pupils who, in 1895-96, obtained the certificate of exemption from military service:

Years in Course.	Type of School.	Number of Pupils who left the Schools in question with the Certificate for One Year's Military Training.
9	Gymnasien	1,518
	Realgymnasien	1,058
	Oberrealschulen	611
6	Progymnasien	352
	Realprogymnasien	592
	Realschulen	1,316

Twenty-five per cent. only of the pupils complete the course and obtain the leaving certificate, whilst 40.2 per cent. leave after obtaining the certificate for one year's military service,

thus showing what the main attraction of these schools is. The true inwardness of a German schoolmaster's remark is evident. He told me, "You must go in for conscription, then your secondary schools will improve!"

The curriculum of these schools is devised as a preparation for university studies; yet, as a matter of fact, only 15 per cent. of the pupils proceed to the university, and so they alone get the intended benefit of the school course. The vast majority proceed direct from school to life, and a careful study of the curriculum of the Gymnasium will bring home to one how poor a preparation for the life of to-day this training is.

It is one of the most remarkable features of this system that, despite the enormous social advantages and privileges of the gymnasium over the modern school, the latter has grown continuously. This table shows the growth:—

Year.	Number of Gymnasien.	Number of Pupils attending Gymnasien.	Number of Realschulen.	Number of Pupils attending Realschulen.
1885-86	259	77,718	39	13,486
1886-87	263	78,498	39	14,034
1887-88	264	78,683	44	15,882
1888-89	266	77,629	48	17,475
1889-90	267	76,537	50	18,896
1890-91	270	75,599	56	21,366
1891-92	271	74,907	56	23,081
1892-93	272	74,951	55	23,037
1893-94	274	75,266	64	22,116
1894-95 ¹	274	75,233	67	22,330

Whereas in 1882 there were nine pupils studying Latin to every one that did not, in 1892 there were only five Latin to one non-Latin, and in 1894 the proportion had actually fallen to only three Latin pupils to every one non-Latin in the secondary schools of Prussia.

There can indeed be little doubt that did these two schools, the classical and the modern, possess equal privileges for their graduates, the numbers attending the modern school would soon surpass those of the classical school. It needs social

¹ In 1898-99 the pupils numbered respectively 83,272 and 27,232.

privileges to bolster up the classical school, for the middle classes of Germany, like their Emperor, although themselves nurtured on this classical pabulum, are keenly alive to the importance of the school meeting to some extent the necessities of modern life and civilisation.

But Prussia is intensely conservative. The Prussian does not take kindly to new ideas. In few countries have the classical tongues found more eloquent and able champions. To the classical training is the modern regeneration of Germany ascribed, and like good children Germans are prepared to kiss the hand that once fed them; so that to-day the predominance of the classical tongues seems secure in the vast majority of the schools. In only one-sixth of all the schools are the classics replaced by modern languages as the linguistic basis of the school curriculum. Practically all the professions are closed to these non-classical pupils, and their social status is much lower than is that of the gymnasiast. Commerce and industry with some minor professional and Government posts alone are open to the non-classical pupil.

As Germany develops into the great commercial and industrial community she promises to be, these restrictions and privileges will doubtless disappear. Meanwhile, here as in France the immediate result of this system is an enormous growth of the *déclassés*—the educated proletariat—intellectual paupers. “An educated German called in silk hat and gloves to beg. ‘Why don’t you work?’ asked the common-sense American, and was met with an indignant reply, ‘That would not be in keeping with my social station.’” (Young, *The Teaching of Mathematics in Prussia*, p. 7.)

The training in classical tongues is on the best lines. Such elegant accomplishments as the writing of Latin verse and Greek prose are no longer taught. The teaching is largely oral, and special attention is given to correct pronunciation.¹ An endeavour is made to vivify the teaching by means of models, charts, etc., so that those old worlds of Rome and Athens may be to some extent realised by the pupils. An endeavour, too, is made to reproduce the classical atmosphere and perspective.

But how futile all this is! Directly the pupil leaves school

¹ See Bréal, *Excursions pédagogiques*, p. 26, where a very interesting account of the classical teaching of the German school is given.

these pass away like some bad dream, away go this classical atmosphere and imagery, and he is left shivering in a strange land.

"The ancient literature," said Virchow at the Berlin Conference, "served more to show the sources of prejudice than the sources of knowledge. . . . All of our American and Japanese scholars, a great part of the English, and a not inconsiderable portion of those from every conceivable nation, have no proper gymnasial training. The greater number of these young men without classical training devote themselves to their work with much greater earnestness and much more consecration than the majority of our gymnasial pupils, especially in the earlier part of their courses. In our Gymnasien a multitude of tasks are performed that have no visible effect."

In the teaching of modern languages the Germans are leading the world. They have adopted the scientific conceptions of Sweet and Vietor, and upon this phonetic basis, and by means of the *direct* method, they have perfected a training in modern languages which to-day is almost beyond criticism.

In science the German teacher relies upon the lecture rather than upon the laboratory method.¹ The newer schools possess laboratories, it is true, but very little use is made of them. The German teacher considers that it is better, from a pedagogic point of view, to avoid than to correct mistakes. It is better for the pupil to see experiments properly executed, and to be trained to observe and reason correctly by his teacher, than to grope helplessly along in the dark, endeavouring to discover for himself. Life is too short for inventive methods. A child of to-day is the rightful heir of the ages, he is entitled to the heritage of civilisation. The accumulated knowledge and experience of the race is his, to assimilate and make his own as rapidly as may be. The shorter the period of adjustment, provided it is effective, the better for the child and the community. It is neither right nor scientific to place the child of to-day where Father Adam was. It is the trained power of observing that the child needs, and this his trainer can develop much more rapidly than if the pupil is left to himself. However, the ideals of nations and teachers vary. The cultivation of the child's self-activity as a weapon for training, although

¹ Even in the German universities only chemistry is taught practically.

originally the conception of a German, has never been fully utilised in the German school, primary or secondary.

In the teaching of the mother tongue there is one matter for observation, and that is the official prohibition of the teaching of formal grammar. The mother tongue must not be taught as a foreign tongue; it must be taught by example and use, not by formal rules of grammar. In England the primary school still makes a fetish of this futile study.

The final examination, *abiturienten Examen*, of the nine-year course secondary school is the sole gateway to the universities and liberal professions. This examination is conducted by a commission, made up of the teachers of the top class of the school, together with the head-master (director), and a commissioner appointed by the Provincial Board, who is generally the Government Inspector of the school. The examination is both written and oral. The written portion consists of questions drawn up by the teacher and selected by the commissioner. The written examination consists of a piece of German composition; pieces of translation from German into Latin and from Greek and French into German; a mathematical paper in algebra, trigonometry, plane and solid geometry; and lastly, an optional piece of translation from English or Hebrew into German. Future theological students must take Hebrew.

The oral examination consists of questions in Latin, Greek, history, and mathematics. These are generally put by the teacher of each subject, and are intended mainly to throw light on apparent weaknesses or ambiguities that may have appeared in the written examination. The commissioner may, and often does, supplement the teachers' questions by some of his own.

In contrast to the French system of examination, the German examination is conducted by the school authorities, not the university authorities. Moreover, the examination is conducted almost entirely by the teacher himself; in France it is conducted by outsiders, who know nothing of the pupil's real worth and work.¹ Moreover, in Germany everything is done to lessen the strain inseparable from an examination. The

¹ It is to be noted that the commissioner is able to judge of the work of the school as a whole, and his criticisms will be directed to the right persons—the teachers, not the pupils. Should he be dissatisfied with the results of the examination, he may recommend the withdrawal of the power to grant diplomas, which would mean the closing of the school. (See Bréal, *ibid.*, p. 94.)

examination comes as an incident in the ordinary school life of the German lad; in France it is deliberately set as the culmination of the hopes and ambitions of the pupil, and his parents too.

"The elect minority of students who pass through all the stages until the last gauntlet of examination has been run, win for themselves a clear title to respect, for the discipline is no child's play, but the sacrifice is often a heavy one. They have toiled laboriously up the heights; yet, instead of the world lying at their feet, as might be supposed, the prospect before them is often very limited. If they wait long enough, the career they have had in view may come within their reach, but the waiting is generally tedious and trying. Should they, however, abandon their original design and look for other openings, the choice is small indeed; for the worst of this system of education is that the youths who, after a long and terribly hard school course, are unable to gain admission to any of the professions, cannot easily turn to anything else. They are only fit for the narrow sphere upon which their hopes and aims were set. They lack adaptability, because their education has been one-sided, and paid little or no regard to the requirements and conditions of practical life. Worse, however, is the case of those who, after spending many years in studies far above their capacities, are sent into the world half educated. The number of these is very large. Since every man of much money and little discretion wishes his sons, whether promising or not, to go through the Gymnasium, the lower forms of the classical schools are always crowded. Naturally, the progress of the youths is not equal. Those of ability advance normally from form to form, while those without aptitude for learning remain behind, and drudge for years at the rudiments of an erudite knowledge which Divine Providence never intended for heads like theirs. It is an absurd arrangement, but the fault lies at the doors of foolish parents. So the years pass on, and by the time the backward youths should have reached the highest form they are only half-way to the top, and at this stage they are turned out—educational failures. The ten years or more which should have covered the whole curriculum of the Gymnasium have been expended in struggling through the elementary stages. Useful subjects have been neglected altogether in favour of studies far above the learner's capacity. The boy has gone

through endless labour, and the result is of the least tangible character. If, on the other hand, these precious years had been spent in a school of a lower stage, little or none of the time need have been thrown away. The lad would not have been turned out a pundit, but he would not have remained an ignoramus. As he went to the Gymnasium, he had to submit to its inexorable discipline. It did the best it could with the material at its disposal. That better results were not achieved was not, in his case at any rate, the fault of the education there imparted, but of the learner, who was not fitted to attempt its acquisition." (W. H. Dawson, *Germany and the Germans*.)

It is now time to speak of the teacher. The secondary teachers of Germany have no peers. They are without doubt the finest body of teachers in the world.

The teacher is almost invariably an old gymnasial pupil. The first requirement for the profession of teacher that the State insists upon is the *abiturienten Examen*—the certificate of "ripeness" for university studies—*i.e.*, the certificate of having completed the examination just described. This certificate is obtainable only after passing through a nine years' course, hence only pupils from the Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, and Oberrealschule are qualified. Further, the certificate given to the Gymnasium pupil guarantees his "ripeness" for *all* university studies; that given to the pupil from the Realgymnasium certifies "ripeness" for university studies in mathematics, natural sciences, and modern languages; while the certificate from the Oberrealschule only admits to university studies in mathematics and natural science.¹

The second requirement of the intending teacher is the university certificate, that he has attended for three years courses in certain specified subjects. The university degree of Ph.D. is neither required nor desired. The majority of secondary teachers evidently do not consider the degree worth the money it costs.

The next requirement is the special State examination for teachers, held by special commissions appointed for this purpose by the State. There are ten such commissions in Prussia, all in university towns. The members of these commissions are university professors, distinguished secondary schoolmasters, and official experts. The purpose of the commission is to determine whether the candidate is sound on

¹ See note at end of chapter.

religion, thoroughly conversant with his native tongue, and knows something of pedagogy and psychology, also as to his knowledge of the special branches he proposes to teach. There are two classes of certificates issued as a result of this examination, depending upon the ability and extent of knowledge shown by the candidate. The examination is both written and oral. The written portion consists of the preparation of not more than three essays by the candidate. Six weeks is allowed for the preparation of each essay. One of the essays must be on a pedagogic subject.

The certificates obtainable qualify the candidate, according to the subjects which he presented, to teach in any one of the four following groups :—

1. Philology and History.
2. Mathematics and Science.
3. Religion and Hebrew.
4. Modern Languages.

If this written examination is successfully negotiated the candidate faces the ordeal of the oral examination.

Having completed this State examination successfully, the candidate, together with four or five others, is assigned to a specified secondary school, where he is placed under the care of the director. These special secondary schools, or teaching seminaries, are fully sufficient for the supply of teachers. During the first year the candidate does not teach at all, but watches the qualified teachers at their work, takes notes of the lessons, and afterwards meets and discusses these with the director and teachers. Before the end of this "Seminar" year he must prepare a pedagogic essay on some subject selected by the director.

In the second half of the year he teaches for about two hours weekly in the presence of the director and regular teachers. Moreover, he is expected to visit neighbouring schools, and to seize every opportunity of making himself practically acquainted with the details of organisation and curricula.

Following this comes the *Probeyahr*, or trial-year, which is generally spent in another school. The candidate is now attached to the school staff, receives a small salary, and teaches regularly, at first under supervision, but later on alone. At

the close of this trial-year the candidate prepares a written report of the progress he has made and of the work he has done. This, and the director's report upon the candidate's work, are despatched to the Provincial Board, which, if satisfied, duly appoints the candidate to a permanent position.

So great is the supply, however, that the candidate has often a weary time to wait before being appointed.¹ The teacher is a civil servant of assured social status and position. His tenure is wonderfully secure and fixed, as the following table shows :—

Year.	Total Number of Positions.	Total Number of New Teachers.	New Teachers' First Position Held.	New Teachers from other Places.	Total Number Leaving.	Called to other Positions.	Choosing other Occupations.	Number Retiring.	Number Retired on Pensions.	Number of Deaths.
1891	7,159	282	274	8	151	3	30	15	54	49
1892	7,226	241	236	5	179	6	40	17	61	55
1893	7,248	298	296	2	204	3	29	6	87	79
1894	7,302	233	225	8	209	2	42	8	98	59

(*Statistisches Jahrbuch*, quoted by Bolton, *The Secondary School System of Germany*, p. 119.)

The salary of the secondary teachers varies from £70 per annum for an ordinary teacher in any secondary school, up to a maximum of £330 per annum for the director of a Berlin school, and £500 per annum for the director of a private Hamburg Gymnasium. All teachers are pensioned at sixty-five years of age, or before if invalidated. The maximum pension

¹ "The embarrassingly large number of candidates for secondary schools—that is, men who had gone through the university and had mostly acquired the degree of Ph.D.—and the impossibility to accommodate them all in secondary institutions, caused these candidates to apply for positions in the lower schools. The school authorities accepted many of them, and later selected from their number the teachers for intermediate or advanced elementary schools, called Burger schools in Germany." (C.R., 1893-94, p. 270.)

of three-fourths of this maximum salary is obtained after forty-five years' service. In case of death the widow and children are pensioned.

This system, admirable as it is in many respects, is not above criticism, as recent German literature will evidence. The system, like most State systems, tends to crush individuality, self-help, and resource. It produces intellects, not characters.¹

It turns out only one kind of product, and that not the best suited for the twentieth century. "Since the year 1870," said the German Emperor, "the philologists as *beati possidentes* have sat in the Gymnasien and have laid their chief emphasis upon the subject that was taught, upon learning and knowing, but not upon the formation of character and the actual needs of modern life. Less emphasis has been placed upon the *can* than the *ken*, as the demands of the examinations show. They proceed on the axiom that, above all things, the scholar must know as much as possible: whether that is suitable for life or not is a secondary consideration. If one converses with one of these gentlemen, and seeks to explain to him that the young man must after all, to a certain extent, receive a practical preparation for life and its problems, the answer is ever that that is not the task of the schools. The chief object of the school is the gymnastics of the intellect, and if these gymnastics were properly pursued the young man would be in a position to accomplish with that training all the necessary tasks of life. I think that we cannot go on acting from that point of view any longer."

More is perhaps done in Prussia than elsewhere through the Realschulen to fit the pupil for the battle of life, but even this

¹ "I regret that I cannot bear my testimony to our having made progress in forming the character of pupils in our schools. When I look back over the forty years during which I have been professor and examiner—a period during which I have been brought in contact not only with physicians and scientific investigators, but also with many other types of men—I cannot say that I have the impression that we have made material advances in training up men with strength of character. On the contrary, I fear we are on a downward path. The number of 'characters' becomes smaller. And this is connected with the shrinkage in private and individual work done during a lad's school-life. For it is only by means of independent work that the pupil learns to hold his own against external difficulties, and to find in his own strength, in his own nature, in his own being, the means of resisting such difficulties and of prevailing over them." (Dr. Virchow at the Berlin Conference.)

training is inadequate, and the school itself suffers from its position in the social scale.

Let us consider for a moment this training of the Realschule. The pedagogic basis of the curriculum of *all* Prussian secondary schools is linguistics. In the Realschule English and French are the weapons used for training. The science taught in all these schools is of no great quantity. Germany has no school which has a scientific basis to its curriculum.¹ Now, a linguistic training is admittedly much cheaper than a scientific training, but does it, or can it, produce the resource, handiness, skilfulness, the keen eye and the ready hand with their concomitant, the trained will—the power of rapid decision following upon a complete knowledge of the phenomena—that a scientific training engenders? A linguistic training may make the social organism intelligible to the pupil, but the physical environment remains absolutely unintelligible to him.

This course of linguistic training may, and indeed does, produce cheap commercial travellers for Germany, and cheap correspondence clerks for the rest of Europe, but I doubt the value to Germany of supplying these cheap goods to other countries. It is true that neither England nor Italy should grumble, for these clerks develop into admirable citizens. England owes too much to the refugees from other lands to be grudging in her hospitality. Yet the fact is, a nation requires its schools to turn out “doers,” not “talkers,” and, furthermore, the civilised world will soon be too small for commercial travellers.²

It must be remembered, too, that the gift of tongues does

¹ One does not include the magnificent polytechnics under the term school.

² “A plan for the transformation of the Real schools has been laid before the Council of the Russian Empire. These schools were based upon those of Germany for modern instruction. They are still found to have either too much or too little of the classical element in them; they are condemned for forming half-trained men, whose training has been both too literary and too unpractical to enable them to face industrial and commercial life with much chance of success. Hence it is felt that these schools should be turned into purely technical schools.”

“The training will be such as to turn out good foremen and heads of workshops, who will have received such a general culture and technical instruction as to enable them to at once obtain a situation in a manufacturing or commercial business, and who will not run the risk of being driven into the ranks of the unclassed—the open sore of modern communities.” (*Guyau, Education and Heredity*, footnote, p. 180.)

not add an inch to one's mental stature. If the training simply culminates in the ability to speak the foreign tongue, then its value as an instrument of intellectual and moral training is negligible. There is a tendency to over-estimate the value of this gift. Because the English are, as a rule, poor linguists, they exaggerate the value of this power. Every new language acquired weakens our command of the mother tongue. The greatest linguists are by no means the greatest thinkers. It should be noted, too, that English, being the commercial language of the world, is indispensable to a German commercial man,¹ whereas German is of no greater value than French or even Spanish to an English commercial man. National obstinacy is not an unmixed curse; if the foreign tongue gains, the home tongue loses. "Comparing themselves with the English, whose language is spoken all over the world, and who are therefore spared to a certain extent the necessity of mastering foreign languages, the Germans seem to fear that their own adaptability and linguistic facility have to some extent deprived their language of a perfection of which it is capable and a prestige which is its due. That is not quite their way of putting it; they simply say, 'If we were not so ready to cultivate and speak the language of others they would be more ready to speak and cultivate ours.'" (*Miss Brebner, Special Reports*, vol. iii. p. 487.)

The lack of school games is a serious blemish in this German system. No system of gymnastics cultivates the spirit of co-operation and independence as do the school games.

The over-pressure to which the Prussian child is subjected is bound to have a permanently pernicious effect upon the physical stamina and virility of the German people. This system is sapping the vitality of Prussia.

Too much is ascribed to this German system of training.²

¹ This has been recently recognised, and English is in future to be a compulsory subject in the Gymnasium in place of French.

² The growth of German commerce is not altogether a consequence of the high efficiency of the school. As M. Bréal has pointed out, it is above all else due to the necessity of finding fresh openings for a glutted market. The large families have sent the German abroad as emigrant, and with him he takes the tender ties that bind him to his Fatherland. These big families, too, develop in their members a strength of character that arises from competition, and there is a sturdy independence engendered

Admirable as it is, the future predominance of the German people is far more intimately dependent upon the virility of its manhood and the size of its families than upon the maintenance of the present intellectual standard of its schools. Germany is a nation of great thinkers, it is true, but nature is no admirer of intellect, her favourite is the nation of good animals.¹

The class distinctions of German society which the schools respond to are characteristic of monarchical and military, not of democratic, states.

There is no educational ladder nor common school in Germany or France. The boy's career in Prussia is fixed for him by his parents when he is nine years old.²

Thus the social community cuts off the best part of its supply of brain-power, and by so doing deliberately handicaps

that is utterly lacking in the "only son." A French writer, M. Debury, has pointed out that, however much this "only son" may be educated—"instruct him in every modern tongue that his head can hold"—he is still convinced that the end of life is pleasure, and that his duty is to spend in enjoyment those riches which his foolish parents have collected for him. (See *Les Études classiques, etc.*, by A. Fouillée, pp. 157, 158.)

¹ Whatever be the cause, the physical and moral stamina of European peoples has of late years shown a distinct deterioration; at least that is the opinion agreed to by the experts who examine conscripts of different countries. (*C.R.*, 1893-94, p. xlvi.)

² Writes an American: "In Germany parents are obliged to determine early whether their sons are to pursue higher studies or whether they are to limit their education to the elementary branches, for the high school has its own 'feeder' (elementary classes), and rarely takes its pupils from the public elementary school. Moreover, the parents must determine before the boys have reached their eleventh year whether they are to pursue a course which will land them at the gate of the university or of a polytechnical or other professional school. Once fairly started in their career, there is no return possible, except at the sacrifice of some years, which they must waste in order to 'adjust themselves' to the different conditions, should they or their parents determine upon a change. This inflexibility is the reason why in Germany so many 'miss their natural calling.' It is the effect of conditions arising from the differentiation in society. An aristocracy of birth, education, or wealth seems a necessity as long as a monarchical form of government is maintained. A monarch must needs have a pedestal, which is found in an ascending scale of society. Hence there is in Europe no such exponent of modern civilisation as our common school, which is the most powerful leveller of social inequalities yet devised. While it lifts the lower strata of society, it also drags downward those standing on an elevation; and it is quite immaterial whether this elevation be a money bag, or a pedestal of culture, or a genealogical tree." (L. R. K. in the *Teacher*.)

itself in the battle of nations. In the ideal democratic State, on the contrary, the bright genius, the God-given intellect, is not lost, but developed by the State for the common good.

As in France, too, the liberal professions are appallingly overcrowded. "The schools," said the Emperor—"I will now speak of the Gymnasien—have accomplished the superhuman, and have, according to my opinion, brought about an entirely too great over-production of cultivated men, more than the nation can bear, and more than the cultivated people themselves can bear. So the word that we have coming from Prince Bismarck is right—the word 'graduate-proletariat.' All the so-called hunger candidates, especially the journalists—they are multifarious, ruined gymnasiasts; they are a danger to us. This superfluity, that is already too great, like a saturated field that can take in no more, must be disposed of. On that account I will not sanction another Gymnasium that cannot prove its right to existence and its necessity. We have enough already."¹

The products of the German classical school, nourished on an artificial food, and all unsuited as they are for to-day, have but one fate, the professions or Government employment. But these are already full. So it comes that from this educated proletariat spring the socialism, the anarchy, and the yellow journalism of Germany. It is not that there is too much secondary training; but the training given is of the wrong character. This classical training is out of date, out of touch with the times. It is the most illiberal training in the world, it is conservatism of the crassest and grossest kind. The pupils of this system find life curiously unlike the life they have

¹ And Professor Preyer wrote: "The question is a much deeper one than that of the prosperity of a hundred schools. Here the old and the new generations come into collision. Here the old ideas of an encyclopedical, cosmopolitan, old classical culture, and the modern ideas of individual, practical, national education come together. The question is, shall only that man still pass for highly educated who is instructed according to the principles of the seventeenth century? Shall the study of dead languages still be given the preference? Shall the German still seek a better intellectual home in Athens and in Rome? Or shall, as we desire, the modern culture corresponding to the present and to the truth, based upon scientific principles, be recognised by the State alongside of the other forms of culture? Shall an old prejudice continue to be officially cherished, so that both kinds of Gymnasien pine, or shall it fall so that new life is put into both?" (*C.R.*, 1889-90. p. 342.)

hitherto lived and studied. That old world and this new world are so different. Things are wrong, the times are out of joint—*vive l'anarchie!*

NOTE.—In Germany it is the completion of a period of training, not passing an examination only, that is the essential requirement. Thus a six years' training in a secondary school, in a primary normal school, or in a private school will entitle the pupil to the certificate of military exemption. Recently, too, all pupils who complete a nine years' course in any one of the three types of secondary school have been put on terms of equality as regards admission to university studies, and under certain conditions to teacherships in secondary schools. For details, see *Special Reports*, vol. ix.

CHAPTER XI.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

A STUDY of American education convinces the impartial critic that, behind all the imperfections and inequalities of the system, there is an intense national earnestness, which will carry this people to a future that is as yet but dimly perceived and understood. America is climbing to the stars blindfolded and unconsciously. The mountain is indeed in labour, but instead of a mouse there will come forth a child, bearing the torch in its hand, and scattering the rays of the democratic ideal around a benighted world.

The American pioneers, sprung as they were from the Puritanical stock of England, carried with them an intense belief in the virtue of education. "Exiles from the country they loved, they asked only that 'in quiet insignificance' they might lay the foundations of civil and religious liberty. But these men of such strong convictions, who for principle were willing to pay the price of banishment, were alike worthy of honour for the nobility of their lineage and for their high intellectual acquirements. A New England writer says that they 'were the most highly educated men that ever led colonies.' We shall not, then, be surprised to find that they devoted themselves with such earnestness to the cause of education, being fully aware that without the schoolmaster and the schoolhouse, nothing could save them from sinking into barbarism. Such was their conviction on this point, that scarcely a lustrum was allowed to pass before they placed the schoolhouse beside the church, determined that upon these two—education and religion—they would lay the foundation of the new Government." (G. G. Bush, *The First Common Schools of New England*; C.R., 1896-97, p. 1,165.) To realise the democratic ideal, which is the foundation-stone of the American Commonwealth, it was necessary to organise an effective system of universal education. And so we find the fathers of Massa-

chusetts inaugurating a system of public schools as far back as 1647, "to the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers." This national belief in the absolute necessity of education for the well-being of the Commonwealth is reiterated again and again. "I apprehend," said Daniel Webster, "no danger to our country from a foreign foe; . . . our destruction, should it come at all, will be from another quarter. From the inattention of the people to the concerns of the Government, from their carelessness and negligence, I confess I do apprehend some danger. I fear that they may place too implicit confidence in their public servants, and fail properly to scrutinise their conduct; that in this way they may be the dupes of designing men, and become the instruments of their undoing. Make them intelligent, and they will be vigilant; give them the means of detecting the wrong, and they will apply the remedy." And he called the free public school "a wise and liberal system of police, by which property and the peace of society are secured."

The American people have recognised the absolute indispensability of a national system of education. The school system is an essential part of the social organism. The whole of society is permeated by this respect for the school. There is, as a German observer said, a great hunger for education. This people feel that there is no greater crime upon God's footstool than ignorance. Ignorance is the mother of all evil.

The politician, it is true, has hitherto done much to hinder the satisfying of this desire; yet there are unmistakable signs that this will not be tolerated much longer. This intense belief in education will do more than all the governments in the world; faith will move mountains. The American common people believe in their schools, the European common people only tolerate them.

It is this indifference to the ideals of life that occasionally makes one despair of English democracy. It is more interested in a patriotic ditty than in the realising of an ideal. Better is the avowed hostility of the farmer than the indifference of the Cockney. With the American's enthusiastic faith in the future of his schools has grown a determination that they shall be the expression of the national democratic ideal. American democracy—Saxon democracy—is individualistic, not social. Every citizen is entitled to complete self-development,

chiefly for his own sake, but also because thus alone does the community benefit. There must not only be the legal equality of the French Republic, but also social equality. There must be equality of opportunity. Every child is entitled to the best, and in return he will give of his best.

"First of all, and, if I mistake not, most fundamental of all is the principle of individualism, a principle capable of application alike to students, instructors, and institutions. Every man born into the world comes into it with the limitations of his work already defined by nature. The man who succeeds in life is simply the man who is fortunate enough to discover the thing nature intended him to do. In some cases nature has seen fit to indicate early and definitely the line of work in which success may be attained. In others the discovery is made, if made at all, late in life. In the growth and development of the body and mind each man or woman is to be treated as if he or she were the one person in existence. The individual, not the mass, is to be cared for." (W. R. Harper.)

America is working out a system of training which will be unique in the history of the world. The true democratic ideal has never yet been realised in a great commercial and industrial community such as America. "All for all" makes a beautiful motto for school decoration, but a somewhat difficult maxim for school practice. The difficulties, both social and pedagogic, in the realisation of this ideal are enormous, and it will be our purpose to examine some of them in this chapter.

They are to us interesting and instructive, for what America is facing to-day we must face to-morrow. England must look westward, not eastward, for light. It is two hundred years and more since the practice of free secondary education was begun in America. From that beginning sprang the modern system of free secondary and academic education. All public primary schools, a large proportion of public secondary schools, and nearly all State universities are free.¹ In America the doctrine of the essential solidarity of all forms of education—

¹ American educators hold that all forms of education must be free—not some. "Really the same arguments which justify the maintenance of the Public High School justify the public support of the University. The line which divides them is constantly changing. The High School to-day teaches branches which the University taught yesterday. Hardly any one now advocates limiting public education to the elementary branches

kindergarten, primary, secondary, and higher education—is now accepted by all, and has become a part of the common faith of the nation.

It is the duty of the community to provide not primary education only, but every form of training needed by its youth. No limit whatever may be put on the efforts of the community to give its children whatever training it can. It is held that this is the inalienable right not only of the community, but of the child too. "Only the best is good enough for the child."

Wherever God has scattered the precious seeds of bright intellect and genius the State must find them out, nurture, nourish, and train them, so that in the good time they may blossom forth and bring forth an hundredfold. It is the grossest neglect and waste to allow these plants to die for want of food and care. "A man capable of development has the right to be educated, and the State or the family which deprives the boy or girl of that inalienable right for the fullest development of his moral, intellectual, and spiritual nature, is doing a grievous wrong to that child, and committing treason against the State in which he lives." (Hon. J. L. M. Curry, *C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 565.)

Hence we find that the democratic ideal, in one direction at any rate, is realised in America by the completion of the educational ladder. There is no *cul-de-sac* tolerated in American education.

With the belief in the solidarity of education grows the recognition of the child's right to the best. So it is held that education must be unified, it must be comprehensive, available for all, it must be free, and lastly, it must be secular.

America long ago concluded that to allow the priest to enter

All recognise the fact that society must have a large number of men and women whose education has been carried far beyond those branches. When society has furnished such persons with this advanced education, society reaps the benefits quite as fully as they. The advantages of such education cannot be confined to the possessors of it. The teacher and the physician bless others by their labours even more than they reward themselves. Those who have gone forth from these halls return to the State far more than what their education has cost the State, by their active and intelligent lives, by becoming centres of intellectual light and stimulus in various parts of the State, by their influence in helping to shape a sound public opinion, by their sympathetic support of public schools, and by all the thousand ways in which a person of cultivation and character blesses the community of which he is a part."—PRESIDENT ANGELL.

the school was to cause endless strife and ultimate inefficiency. It is unnecessary to point out that it was from no lack of faith in the eternal verities, or a disregard of the absolute necessity of helping the moral growth of the child, that this attitude was adopted by the Commonwealth. They themselves tell us that they had become tired of the corruptions in the Church and wished for a "religious reformation." Religion loomed too large in the horizon of those Puritan fathers of the Republic for them to dream of disowning it. It was rather their sad experience of the evils of a State Church, and of the predominance of Church in State, that prompted this attitude, and convinced them that education to be free and national must be non-sectarian.

The public authority for secondary education is the same as for primary, and will therefore need no description here. The same variety of administration, of means adopted, that was noticed in the common school system is, of course, equally evident in the secondary system. The State does not prohibit private secondary schools—in fact it has in the past often subsidised them by grants of public lands, nor are such private schools subject to any form of public control or inspection.

The community recognises its duty to provide public secondary schools for all, and many of such schools are free. As these public schools are available for all, they do not appeal to some. People of a certain class of society and wealth prefer the private secondary school. Here they may have the dogmatic religious teaching which they desire for their boys, but which the public school cannot give. Some of the private schools, too, enjoy a high social status, and consequently appeal by that fact alone to certain parents.

In American official statistics it is usual to include under the term "secondary schools" the normal schools, which, as we have already seen, are often high schools with a pedagogic bias to their curriculum, as well as colleges, universities, and manual-training schools.¹

We propose, however, to confine ourselves to the public and private high schools, in which, as a matter of fact, practically seven-eighths of all so-called secondary scholars are taught.

¹ The American college is largely a secondary institution.

It is computed that there are over 600,000 pupils following a course of secondary studies in American schools; but such a computation is of doubtful value for comparative purposes.

American secondary schools are divisible into two classes, the public high school and the private school, of which the American academy is the best-known type.

The public high school is supported by public funds. The majority of these schools charge no fee. Dogmatic religious teaching is forbidden, but the Bible may be and often is read —without comment. Attendance is not compulsory, but the school is available for all. Sometimes an entrance examination must be passed before admission.

Many public high schools have a preparatory primary school attached.

In 1898-99 there were 5,495 public high schools reported to the Bureau of Education, a gain of 180 over the previous year. Of these 478 were independent. These were generally outside the cities or villages. The remaining 5,017 were departments of public school systems, and of these 731 were in cities of over 8000 people.

No system of scholarships is in existence, as it is considered that secondary training is the right of all children, not of the most precocious only.

This system of intellectual competition of children is alien to American ideas.

The system of competition among children for scholarships, such as those held by some of our County Councils, is both pernicious and ineffective. It may be urged that such competitions serve as a prelude to the battle of life. "If life be a battle, then let the teacher be a bard inspiring his boys for it with martial music," said Jean Paul. But is life a battle? We are the victims of phrases and catch-words. Life, we like to think, is not a battle; it is a struggle, which only degenerates into a battle when the shades of lust and cruelty and bigotry and all uncharitableness fall. It is the lightning's flash momentarily illuminating this scene that prompts us to exclaim "battle," and thus by a word half-heroic and half-barbaric to hide from ourselves the ugliness of this struggle.

But this competition of children is not even effective. You want to help the children who need your help --those who have in crowded rooms and in stolen moments endeavoured to snatch crumbs from the table of wisdom. Do you get these?

or do you not rather get those whose parents have such means as to give their children more time and help than the school affords?

"In all trial of our children I believe all emulation to be a false motive, and all giving of prizes a false means. All that you can depend upon in a boy, as significative of true power, likely to issue in good fruit, is his will to work for the work's sake, not his desire to surpass his schoolfellows; and the aim of the teaching you give him ought to be to prove to him, and strengthen in him, his own separate gift, not to puff him into swollen rivalry with those who are everlastingly greater than he: still less ought you to hang favours and ribands about the neck of the creature who is the greatest, to make the rest envy him. Try to make them love him and follow him, not struggle with him.

"There must, of course, be examination, to ascertain and attest both progress and relative capacity; but our aim should be to make the students rather look upon it as a means of ascertaining their own true positions and powers in the world, than as an arena in which to carry away a present victory."

(*A Joy for Ever*, secs. 135, 136.)

The second class of secondary school is the private high school or academy. The academy is the survival of what was once the predominant type of American secondary school. Those surviving are private boarding-schools, which have established a reputation, largely as preparatory schools for the colleges. Some of these private academies receive a subsidy from the State, as in Maryland. They are often *class* schools, as opposed to the democratic public high school. Their fees are high and the *clientèle* select. The best of these academies are comparable in some respects to the secondary schools of France or Germany. They are true intermediate schools, and their main purpose is the preparation of pupils for the university. The majority of the pupils entering the older and more distinguished universities are trained in the academies, and only in the more populous centres can the high school compete with them as preparatory schools. Of American private schools, 1,957 were reported in 1898-99 to the Bureau of Education.

The following table brings out clearly the growth of this public system of secondary schools, with the concurrent and indeed consequent decrease in private secondary schools:—

Years Reported.	Per Cent. of Number of Schools.		Per Cent. of Number of Teachers.		Per Cent. of Number of Students.	
	Public.	Private.	Public.	Private.	Public.	Private.
1889-90	60.75	39.25	55.85	44.15	68.13	31.87
1890-91	61.78	38.22	57.03	42.97	68.26	31.74
1891-92	66.19	33.81	57.42	42.58	70.40	29.60
1892-93	66.23	33.77	60.25	39.75	70.78	29.22
1893-94	66.67	33.33	60.21	39.79	70.91	29.09
1894-95	68.37	31.63	62.26	37.74	74.74	25.26
1895-96	70.25	29.75	64.21	35.79	78.11	21.89
1896-97	70.87	29.13	63.71	36.29	79.18	20.82
1897-98	72.76	27.24	65.72	34.28	81.03	18.97
1898-99	73.74	26.26	66.55	33.45	82.10	17.90

(C.R., 1898-99, p. 1,844.)

These official figures, though not claiming perfect accuracy, show unmistakably the trend of public favour and growth. Of the secondary scholars in public high schools, more than half were in twelve States in the North-Central Division; nearly one-third were in the nine North Atlantic States; whilst the remaining twenty-nine States and Territories in the West and South had altogether barely one-fifth of the total number of secondary students.

As we have already pointed out, the administration of the public schools is in the same hands as that of the primary schools. In the rural districts the adoption of the township system has led to a considerable increase in the number of high schools. There is an evident tendency to make the administrative area of the township commensurate with that supplied by a high school and its primary feeders. In many of the States—e.g., Massachusetts, Maryland, Indiana, and Minnesota—the system of public high schools has assumed a comprehensive character.

Thus in Massachusetts every township of 500 families is compelled to provide secondary education for its children, and as the State is completely subdivided into townships, secondary education is available for every child.

As a matter of fact, the State law compels only 185 of these townships to provide secondary schools, but local zeal and enthusiasm has compelled the erection of 70 more, and those

townships which have no schools of their own find funds to send their secondary students to the neighbouring high schools.

It is impossible to give a complete estimate of the cost of this system of public high schools, as in many city school systems no distinction is made between primary and secondary school expenditure.

But of those schools that reported to the Commissioner of Education in 1898-99, there were 4,430 schools which gave the estimated value of their grounds, buildings, apparatus, etc. This amounted to a sum of £18,000,000 sterling, or about £4000 for each school. In the libraries of 4,537 of these schools there were 2,618,445 volumes—that is to say, each school possessed a library of some 600 volumes. In 1,580 of these schools fees were charged amounting to over £100,000, or about £60 per school.

Of the private secondary schools reporting we are told that the total value of 1,372 schools was in the same year £11,149,891, or an average value for each school of nearly £9000. 1,353 of these schools possessed libraries averaging over 1,200 volumes for each school. The fees amounted to a sum of about £1000 for each school. Over 250 of these private schools received help from public funds amounting to over £100 for each school, and 184 of them received benefactions during that year amounting to over £300,000.

The amount spent for educational purposes in some of the States is very large; thus Massachusetts, with a population of 2,805,346, spent in 1897 the sum of £2,478,127, of which sum about one-fifth was devoted to public high schools.

The average number of the city high school is 307 pupils, and of the rural high school 53 pupils.

The average number of all high schools is 87 pupils, and in each class there are 25 pupils to one teacher.

In the year 1898-99 there were 476,227 pupils attending the public high schools, of whom 41 per cent. were boys. There was an army of 18,718 teachers, of whom just over half were women. In the private high schools there were enrolled 103,838 pupils, of whom half were girls, and of 9,410 teachers in these schools 56 per cent. were women. There were 118,050 pupils in the primary classes attached to these latter schools.

The fact that only some 40 per cent. of the pupils of the

public high schools are boys is very significant. It was noticed, too, in the primary school that the boys leave before the girls. As a result of this early age of leaving and short school life of boys in America, women are gradually monopolising the intellectual heritage of the people. This early age at which the boy enters upon life is generally deplored, yet it may perhaps be explained by the literary curriculum of the school. If school and life were nearer together, the delay in entering the turbid waters of the world might be sought by all. At present neither parent nor child appreciates it.

As it is, the English or American boy who leaves school at sixteen is asserted to be at twenty-one often a better-trained, better-cultured man in the best sense than is the graduated pupil of the Gymnasium or Lycée at that age.

It is not all to the good that so large a number of French and German lads delay their entry into life until they are nineteen or twenty years old.

The American boy is so anxious to be in the middle of the strife that he can barely find time to play. Manhood is crowding childhood out of life. Let us hope it will crowd out nothing more, for "Genius," said Coleridge, "is the power of carrying the feelings of childhood into the powers of manhood," and Schopenhauer asserted, "Every child is to a certain extent a genius, and every genius is to a certain extent a child."

America, however, gives its youth freedom. They are not curbed by custom or checked by old men's saws. Nowhere is youth more respected and more trusted. (See *Choses d'Amérique*, p. 87—Max Leclerc.)

The course of the high school is, as a rule, one of four years, though in some districts a six years' course is arranged. The majority of pupils leave after completing only one or two years of the course.

In 1898, of the total number of students in these schools, 11.86 per cent. are enumerated as "graduates," i.e., have completed the secondary school course.

Another interesting feature is the gradual disappearance of the male teacher in the city high school. At present, as a rule, the principal and a few of the other teachers are males. However, even the principalship, as well as the higher posts of superintendent, etc., are being filled by promotion of women teachers, and the day is not far distant when the male

teacher will be as rare in the secondary as he already is in the primary school.

This state of things is regretted by many American educators, for they recognise that there is a period in the training of boys, and, indeed, many would say of girls too, when the strength and firmness of a male teacher are indispensable. Much of the unpopularity of the school amongst youthful America may be traced to this lack of men on the school staff. To get an efficient system of primary and secondary schools, America needs a professional, not an amateur corps of teachers, and such a corps, like any other corps of professional men and women, needs a salary that will not insult its self-respect.

In the vast majority of the high schools co-education of the sexes is the rule. Thus in 1896-97, out of a total of 5,109 public high schools, all but 61 were co-educational; and of a total of 2,100 private high schools, 1,212 were co-educational. There was at one time a certain amount of misgiving apparent among some of the more thoughtful American educators as to the advantages of this system. Nevertheless it is now generally admitted that the advantages more than counterbalance the disadvantages.

This public high school has already encountered some of the difficulties that attend a *common* secondary school. When first commenced, they were intended to act as higher primary or finishing schools; but as time went on, they took on more and more of a secondary character, and found themselves competing for public favour with the academies. "It was inevitable that the high school should from the outset come into competition with the ancient academy and the private school. As with all organisms deriving their sustenance from the same source, and seeking to maintain themselves in the same environment, there began a struggle for existence. The academies gradually weakened; most of them dragged out a lingering existence for a shorter or longer time, and finally gave up the struggle. A few of the stronger ones, becoming sharply specialised as fitting schools and feeders of denominational colleges, remain; but their ancient occupation is gone. They no longer take the boys and girls fresh from rural homes and district schools with awkward manners and homespun clothes, and give them glimpses of the broader world of men and books--a world else all unknown. Now, many of their

students come from homes of wealth—most often new-made wealth—they come from parents who love not learning more, but exclusiveness." (Martin, *Evolution of the Massachusetts School System*, p. 201.)

The public high school as at present organised is endeavouring to meet the needs of two classes of students: first, those who are proceeding from this school to the university college, and who therefore need a true intermediate or secondary education. To such students a knowledge of the classical tongues is almost, if not quite, indispensable. Of the total number of secondary students in the public schools in the year 1897-98, just one in nine only was preparing to enter the college; but for private schools in the same year the number preparing to enter college was nearly one-fourth the total number in the schools. Thus only a fraction of the secondary pupils proceed beyond the public high school, yet, as we shall see later on, quite half the pupils in these schools take up Latin.

There is further to be considered the claims of nearly 90 per cent. of the total number of pupils who attend these schools.¹ To them the school is a finishing school, and its curriculum should, to some extent at any rate, be a preparation for the life they will soon be in the midst of. Occasionally, and especially in rural high schools, the curriculum becomes a very utilitarian one, with book-keeping and shorthand and such-like technical accomplishments occupying conspicuous places.

In parenthesis let us remark that besides these somewhat utilitarian claims of college and life upon the secondary school, that school has a still deeper and more vital national claim to meet.

The secondary school (with the university) is the depository of the heritage of national culture. It is in that bank that the intellectual capital of the people is stored. It is in that temple that the acolytes who are to bear aloft the torch of national culture are trained.

It is in this school alone that the children of the nation, the citizens of to-morrow, are first able to realise and appreciate their share of that common stock of knowledge which is the national inheritance. Each people is joint-heir to the intellectual capital

¹ Of these, a very large number are destined for the post of teacher in the primary schools.

of the universe. Every child is the heir of the ages. And it is only in the higher school that the will can be proven.

These conflicting claims have hitherto made it impossible for the high school in many districts to perform the function of a true secondary school. It has had to be content with the more modest rôle of a finishing, or, in European parlance, a higher primary school.

There was the college on one side pressing for classical studies, on the other side were the parents of the majority of the children, and ratepayers to boot. The stronger side won, and the majority of high schools were compelled to abandon the field of preparing for the universities to the private schools—the academies.

It would thus appear as if the majority of high schools could no longer claim to be secondary schools in the strict sense of the word. It is certain that, like all schools that lack unity of aim, they have suffered from dissipation of energy. An examination of the curricula of these public high schools will show that, in 1899-1900, the principal subjects of instruction were, in order of choice—

Algebra,	Rhetoric,
Latin,	Physiology,
English Literature,	Geometry,
History,	and Physical Geography ;

whereas Greek, French, and Chemistry were taken by only very few pupils indeed. In the private schools, on the contrary, French, German, and Greek are taken up by a considerable proportion. Thus comparing the years 1889-90 and 1899-1900, and taking both private and public high schools, we find that of the students, the males decreased from 45 per cent. to 43 per cent.; of those preparing for a classical career at the university there was a diminution from $10\frac{1}{2}$ to $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and of those taking the course preparatory to the university scientific course there was a decrease from 8 to 6 per cent. The number of students preparing to go to the university diminished from $18\frac{1}{2}$ to $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the whole number of students. Of the pupils in these schools the percentage taking Latin increased from $33\frac{1}{2}$ to 50; French, $9\frac{1}{2}$ to $10\frac{1}{2}$; German, $11\frac{1}{2}$ to 15; Geometry, 20 to $26\frac{1}{2}$; Algebra, 43 to 55; History, 28 to 38. There was a diminution in the percentage of other subjects—e.g., Physics,

21½ to 19; Chemistry, 9½ to 8; whilst Greek remained stationary.

At present, then, it is a matter for discussion how far the average high school is really entitled to be called a true secondary school rather than a higher primary school. However, despite this apparent falling away in its mission of the high school, the leaders of American education have persistently held fast to their ideals, social and pedagogic. They have pleaded for the unity of secondary instruction.

It is immaterial, they assert, what the after-career of the pupil may be. Whether he be destined for college or not, his secondary training must be the same. Indeed, some of them have gone much further than this, and in order to give the system of "electives" a logical basis, they have argued for what is called the "equivalence of studies."

It is quantity, and not quality, that must be the essential basis of comparison between subjects of study. It is possible to fix a series of *norms* for different subjects, which from an educational standpoint are, or should be, mutually interchangeable. It is, in fact, almost immaterial what the subject taught is: the important point is to form a correct estimate of the quantity taught.

This doctrine seems the very acme of formalism, and takes us back to the old days, when the maxim "Not *what* you teach but *how* you teach is the thing!" reigned in the world of education. I had thought that that and all such conceptions of mental gymnastics had disappeared for ever from the pedagogic world. Is the relative culture-content of these different subjects of instruction to receive no consideration? Of course, as a mere measuring-instrument, this conception of *norms* might be useful; but it is always difficult to prevent such ideas soon becoming fetishes, their original purpose lost, and a tradition hiding the ugliness of the thing worshipped.

The really essential point, however, in all these discussions is the independence of the school. Whenever a school is considered as preparatory it suffers. In England and France the infant school has suffered enormously from being compelled to prepare pupils for the primary school, and until the independence of the kindergarten has been assured it will suffer. The primary school suffers when compelled to prepare pupils for the secondary school; and lastly, the influence of

the university on the secondary school has not been happy. No school is subordinate to another school; each school, college, or university has its own life to live and its own mission to fulfil, and that is to do its best for the development of the pupil during those years that he is placed in its charge; and this mission is best fulfilled by disregarding everything that lays claims to the pupil. The school is built for the child, not the child for the school.

Select that curriculum for your school which is best adapted or the development of childhood. Let no power on earth come between the child and childhood.

It is necessary to say something of the evening high school which every township in the State of Massachusetts, of fifty thousand or more people, is compelled to maintain. A similar type of school is found in other States. The curriculum is of a most eclectic character, and is designed to meet the very varied and practical needs of young people whose ordinary education was completed in the day primary school. These schools, in scope and aim, are closely similar to the evening technical schools of England and the Fachschulen of Germany.

The public high school is generally built on the class-room and corridor plan, and possesses a large assembly hall provided with a piano, and decorated with the national flag. Here the whole school assembles for reading the Bible, and for singing, or other collective exercises. Many of these modern school buildings are admirable examples of school planning and architecture. The high school is often the finest public building in the town or city, and is a source of legitimate pride to the citizens.

The class-rooms are tastefully decorated, well ventilated, warmed, and lighted. The desks are single, with revolving and adjustable seats. Around the wall, above the dado, runs a continuous blackboard, at which the whole class is often seen busy at work. The blackboard is utilised, we are told, more by the pupils and less by the teachers than in the English school.

Visitors are impressed by the elegance and convenience of the fittings of the school, and by the unmistakable purpose to make school a pleasant and attractive place to the children. It has been asserted that the internal arrangements of these schools are as far superior to those of a European school as the Pullman car is ahead of the third-class European railway-

carriage. Everything is appropriate; there is a deliberate selection of means to ends.

If America has done nothing more for pedagogy than the invention of the modern school-desk, she has laid humanity under a great debt; thereby it may be possible to rear a race trained not only intellectually, but physically sound too. The apparatus of the American school is on the most elaborate and comprehensive scale. It is supplied with no niggardly hand.¹

The teaching of practical science has, in the best high schools, long been made a special feature of the school work; and this scientific training, which is based upon the cultivation of the child's self-activity, has reacted upon the methods of teaching all the other subjects of the school curriculum.

The heuristic method is becoming the accepted method of the best high schools, as it already is of the best colleges.

There is, it is confessed, in the average high school a great amount of pure memorising going on. The text-book is still the source of all the instruction; but the days of this poor system are evidently numbered, and in its place will be found the "heuristic" or "inventive" method.

The best high schools generally possess two laboratories for scientific training in practical physics and practical chemistry. This scientific training begins with practical physics, and not with practical chemistry, as is generally the case in England. The phenomena dealt with by elementary physics are undoubtedly of a simpler order than those dealt with by elementary chemistry. The former grow more easily upon child-experience, and therefore may be organised and assimilated by the mind of the child much more readily than the phenomena of chemistry, which are more abstract and more out of the run, so to speak, of child experience. The result of this scientific training of

¹ "A noticeable feature in American schools is the large amount of apparatus used. Plentiful blackboards, maps, pictures, models, scientific collections, etc., are regarded not as luxuries but as necessities. Teachers show with pride the various contrivances for facilitating their work and adding to the vividness of the teaching; maps arranged in cases, so that they can be drawn down by springs when wanted; gas laid on by the side of the teacher's desk, so that when experiments have to be performed in the class-room this can be satisfactorily done; large, flat-topped desks for the teachers, with plentiful drawers and shelves, on which are arranged the most important works of reference connected with their work; special stands for exhibiting objects to the class, and other countless devices helpful to teachers and taught." (Zimmern, *Methods of Education in America*, p. 49.)

the best high schools, though poor if measured by the mass of accumulated facts, is, on the other hand, judged by a leading German educator to be very valuable, if it is considered as a process of true education. These American boys, though they know much less than boys of the same age from the German Gymnasium or French Lycée, possess a sprightly vivacity of intellect, a large share of self-reliance and independence, a keen love for intellectual pursuits, all of which would be looked for in vain in his French or German rival. Professor Riedler, the authority referred to, writes:—"The secondary schools in America, gauged by their courses of instruction, and with our standard of measurement, offer a much lower preparation than ours. The linguistic branches are confined to English and the bare elements of foreign languages; the mathematical preparation does not go beyond quadratic equations, plane geometry, and the elements of trigonometry. But the students bring to their higher studies on an average a clearer conception, better imagination, and much more joy in creative work and independence than with us. This is owing to natural talent, rational education, and less overburdening in pursuit of a one-sided, dry linguistic study. They are not drilled much, nor are they spoiled by the quantity or the variety of study; they have open eyes, are accustomed to independent observation, and for the little they have learned they possess a very good comprehension. In the secondary schools much care is taken in physical training and outdoor sports, which form a great treasure of valuable recollections in after-life." (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 678.)

In the humanistic studies of the American school, the same method is applied. We are now dealing, let it be understood, with the best of these schools—the worst we have no time for.

The heuristic method, applied to the humanistic studies, is almost unknown in English schools; in America, it is being carried out on a thorough and complete plan. (See for example *Studies in General History*, by Mary D. Sheldon; Heath, Boston.)

The laboratory necessary for the application of heuristic principles to humanistic training is the school library. The American high school library is probably the best of school libraries. The books are arranged conveniently, and catalogued on a scientific method. In fact, the science of cataloguing the contents of libraries is far superior in the

United States to what it is in Europe. Besides the school library, the municipal public library is often located on the school premises, and special accommodation is provided for school children in these libraries. The former are beautifully and comfortably furnished, and in them a pupil will pass a considerable proportion of the total school hours. This period is arranged for in the school time-table, the "study-hour" being just as much an integral portion of the school session as the "recitation periods." The library is, in fact, an integral and vital part of the school machinery. Here the pupils learn to use books as instruments for intellectual and moral growth.

Besides the school library, a few of the better-equipped city high schools are provided with a reference library in each classroom. This set of books is mainly for the teacher's use, to help her to illustrate and amplify the lesson. Both teacher and pupil constantly refer to books of reference during the lesson. In the teaching of geography and history, heuristic principles are applied, and the pupils are taught the comparative method of estimating statements and correcting judgments. There is a strenuous endeavour to cultivate a scientific attitude in the pupil, and for this purpose the school is equipped with efficient laboratories, museums, and libraries.

In German schools these are also found, but the contrast is this: in Germany these are used by the teacher, in America by the pupil. As a Scandinavian observed of the school exhibits at Chicago: "One may say that the German exhibit showed above all what is done for the pupils, while the United States exhibit contained that which is done by the pupils." (Dr. Lagerstedt, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 639.)

The curriculum of the high schools shows, as might be anticipated, very considerable variety.

In rural districts, where the high school is largely an outgrowth, so to speak, of the primary schools, with practically no independent life of its own, and the students of which are almost entirely confined to those who need only a "top-dressing," the curriculum is generally poor in quality and quantity.

The staff of the rural school, with its meagre funds, is all too poor both in quality and quantity for the work of secondary education; and so the school perforce lowers itself to the apparent needs of the community and the possibilities of its

staff. But the work of true secondary education is largely abandoned, and the school contents itself with supplying higher primary education.

The high school of the urban districts, as we have already seen, is endeavouring to some extent to fill the gap between the primary school and the college. Were the requirements of the college entrance examinations uniform, it would be possible to design a curriculum that might by proper bifurcation meet the requirements of both those pupils who go to college and of those who proceed directly into life, and at the same time maintain that essential unity and solidarity which must underlie the philosophical curriculum.

Unfortunately, the requirements of the colleges vary enormously; so that to meet this variety the system of electives has become compulsory, and the energies of the school are dissipated in an endeavour to run a series of parallel curricula. Miss Zimmern mentions a school with a staff of four actually running four parallel courses! It is impossible to frame a curriculum or curricula which may be said to be typical of American schools, so enormously do these vary.¹

There are, however, four fairly well-defined classes of curricula in the city high schools. These are as follows:—

The Latin or Classical course generally includes both Latin and Greek towards the end of the course.

The English course includes the English language, and either French, German, or Latin.

The Scientific course includes Latin, mathematics, and physics.

¹ "The high school course in Pennsylvania is like the letter *x* in algebra—an unknown quantity whose value must in each case be found in order to be known. Some cities and boroughs strive with commendable zeal to realise the true ideal of a high school—viz., a fitting school for those who wish to enter a higher institution, and a finishing school for those who must begin the struggle for bread. Some high schools neglect preparatory studies, but aim to teach branches which are better taught in the colleges by reason of superior equipment and endowed professorships: and at the end of a three or four years' course their graduates are mortified to find that they cannot enter a respectable college anywhere. Other high schools have courses that were evidently arranged by persons not familiar with all grades of school work. Occasionally one finds a curriculum so ill-fitting and illogical that it must have been shaped to meet the limit qualifications of some ambitious teacher whose friends needed a pretext to give him the salary of a high school principal." (State Supt. of Pennsylvania, *C.R.*, 1892 93, p. 1,674.)

The fourth course may be either a commercial course, which will include German and shorthand, or it may be a modern language course with French and German included.

These courses and others may be, and indeed generally are, found running side by side in the same school. In Boston, and some other cities this is not so; there each curriculum corresponds, as a rule, to a distinct school.

The committee of ten which some years ago investigated this question of curricula suggested the following courses for the high school. These suggested courses have not been largely adopted, but they give us an idea of what these parallel courses in the high school are like. The figures indicate weekly periods.

Year.	I. CLASSICAL.				II. LATIN-SCIENTIFIC.				
	Three Foreign Languages (One Modern).				Two Foreign Languages (One Modern).				
1	Latin	5	Latin	5
	English	4	English	4
	Algebra	4	Algebra	4
	History	4	History	4
	Physical Geography	...	3			Physical Geography	...	3	
	Weekly periods	...	20			Weekly periods	...	20	
2	Latin	5	Latin	5
	English	2	English	2
	German (or French) begun				4	German (or French) begun			4
	Geometry	3	Geometry	3
	Physics	3	Physics	3
	History	3	Botany or Zoology	...	3	
	Weekly periods	...	20			Weekly periods	...	20	
3	Latin	4	Latin	4
	Greek	5	English	3
	English	3	German (or French)	4
	German (or French)	...	4			Mathematics—			
	Mathematics—					Algebra	...	2	
	Algebra	...	2			Geometry	...	2	
	Geometry	...	2			Astronomy ($\frac{1}{2}$ year) and Meteorology ($\frac{1}{2}$ year)	...	3	
	Weekly periods	...	20			History	...	2	
						Weekly periods	...	20	

Year.	I. CLASSICAL.					II. LATIN-SCIENTIFIC.				
	Three Foreign Languages (One Modern).					Two Foreign Languages (One Modern).				
4	Latin	4	Latin	4
	Greek	5	English—				
	English	2	As in classical	...	2	{	
	German (or French)	3	Additional	...	2	{	4	
	Chemistry	3	German (or French)	...			3	
	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra (or History)	3	Chemistry		3	
				—	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra (or History)	...			3	
	Weekly periods	...	20		Geology or Physiography ($\frac{1}{2}$ year) and Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene ($\frac{1}{2}$ year)	3	
					Weekly periods	...	20			

Similar parallel courses are suggested for modern languages and English. (See Butler's *The Meaning of Education*, p. 210.)

The following curricula are actually in use, and therefore are more relevant to our purpose. The first is that of a private boarding-school for boys.

The figures indicate the number of lessons per week; when in parentheses the figures are alternative with others in the same column. (A.E., p. 178.)

	Classical Course.				Scientific Course.			
	Class IV.	Class III.	Class II.	Class I.	Class D.	Class C.	Class B.	Class A.
English	...	4	2	2	4	2	2	2
Latin	...	6	5	5	6	4	(2)	(2)
Greek	...	—	4	5	—	(4)	(2)	—
French	...	(4)	(1)	(1)	(4)	(4)	(2)	(2)
German	...	(4)	(1)	(1)	(4)	(4)	(2)	(2)
Algebra	...	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Geometry	...	2	—	—	2	3	3	3
History	...	—	—	3	—	—	4	—
Natural Science	...	2	—	—	2	—	—	—
Chemistry	...	—	—	—	—	2	(4)	—
Botany	...	—	—	—	—	(2)	(2)	—
					Eighteen hours selected from the foregoing subjects with the addition of trigonometry, drawing, and zoology.			
					Eighteen hours selected from the foregoing subjects with the addition of trigonometry, mechanical drawing, and zoology, political economy, and physics.			

For the public high schools of Minnesota the State high school board has recommended the following courses :—

Subject.	Latin Scientific Course.			
	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
English	5	5	5	5
Latin	5	5	5	5
Mathematics	5	5	—	5
History	—	5	5	—
Natural Science	5	—	5	5

“ In Latin—first year, grammar; second year, Cæsar; third year, Cicero; fourth year, Virgil. In Mathematics—first year, algebra; second year, plane geometry; fourth year, solid geometry and higher algebra.

In Natural Science—first year, zoology or botany; third year, physics; fourth year, chemistry.

Literary course: as above, substituting four years of German for Latin.

Classical course: as above, substituting Greek grammar and *Anabasis* for equivalents.

English course: as above, substituting for Latin four credits chosen from botany, physiography, book-keeping, civics, history, political economy, and senior common branches.” (A.E., p. 178.)

In studying the curricula of these schools the most striking fact is the remarkable growth in the popularity of Latin, whilst the study of Greek has remained stationary. In 1898-99 the number of male students studying Latin was $47\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the total male students, while the females were $52\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the total. There were only 4 per cent. of males, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the females studying Greek. Latin is actually taught in six out of every seven of these high schools.

This return to the classics of the American high school and university is significant, and has excited considerable comment, particularly in France. M. Brunetière sees in it an attempt to create in democratic America an aristocracy of intellect, and of intellect of a kind which France is seeing the folly. (*Revue des Deux Mondes*, Nov. 1897.)

It would seem, however, a more reasonable explanation to see in this recent growth simply the reaction that has followed upon the school's previous unadulterated adherence to commercialism. This school with no traditions falls a ready victim to the ills of the market-place. Its curriculum is a fortuitous aggregation of technical accomplishments. Out of this slough, American teachers are rescuing the high school; and in their eager anxiety to ensure the future of the school against the attractions of the dollar they are erecting a bulwark of classicism, which European experience tells them is the most effective of safeguards. The introduction of this bulwark, like the introduction of the expert as administrator, is, however, full of significance, and the consequences may be other than those anticipated.

The tendency of modern progress in the American school is to greater elasticity and differentiation of curricula, and, providing the liberty does not degenerate into licence, there can be no question as to the wisdom of this movement.

American educators feel that for the public high school to fulfil its functions as a national secondary school it must be a "common" secondary school. It must have as its core those studies which are acknowledged by universal practice as the *common* subjects of the secondary school *par excellence*, and from this core will branch out an extensive programme of "elective" subjects, so that the school may supply the intellectual needs not only of all classes, but even of all individuals in each class.

It is necessary to postpone the divergence of studies. Specialisation, it is held, is no function of the secondary school. Of course that does not mean that the school should not endeavour to train for life. Indeed, it must train for life—the aggregate common life, not the professional life.

The intellectual heritage of the nation must be realised and made secure in the secondary school. There all citizens will capitalise their portion of the common stock of knowledge, and having obtained this they may safely proceed to the technical and professional schools, where the special training for life's needs will be received. It is more necessary that all be citizens than that all be professional men.

Moreover, by this elasticity of curricula individuality is nourished. There is room for character to grow, *even in the*

school, in America. There is an infinite variety of type possible here, which is impossible in France or Germany, or indeed even in England. Consider the lack of variety of type turned out by the English public school, the French Lycée, or the German Gymnasium! Americans may have a lower standard, but it is a more interesting one.

The chief objection to this system is the method of carrying it out. Thus the choice of studies is left to parent and child, the most incompetent of judges as a rule. Children are naturally poor judges of their own aptitudes and capabilities: they are prone to mistake transitory impulses for special fitness; and though it has sometimes happened that boys' careers have been warped by the unwise choice of a foolish parent, yet, as a rule, these instances are insignificant beside the number of those who owe a successful career to the wisdom and foresight of their teachers and guardians.

The concomitant of electives is the doctrine that it is largely the quantity rather than the quality of the subjects chosen that fixes their intellectual value; that, providing the pupil has spent four years in a secondary school, it is, to a considerable extent, a matter of indifference what subjects he has actually selected for study, except in so far as it concerns the pupil himself.

The college should accept a four years' course in a secondary school as equivalent, whatever may have been the subjects taught in the school. The committee of ten refused to recognise any difference in culture-content in the various subjects of the secondary school course. The method of electives, with its concomitant, the doctrine of equivalence of studies, is necessitated by the democratic ideal. From a purely pedagogic standpoint it has serious limitations.

The curriculum of a school is a scheme of subjects based upon scientific principles, and designed for the development of character and intellect. The aim of the secondary school is one, and the curriculum is deliberately framed with that aim in view. Is the curriculum of a school to be merely a haphazard medley of equivalent studies selected by the least competent person, or is it to be a unified scheme of studies deliberately selected by philosophical educators and designed for the development of character and intellect? For that is the alternative. The varying value of the elements of the school curriculum has provided endless discussion for the

greatest German educators, yet American educators propose leaving the choice of curriculum to the pupil! The true curriculum is designed as one instrument—between each part of the whole there should be perfect co-ordination and harmony. It is one grand chord, and each subject is a note which adds to the harmony of the whole. There must be this perfect harmony if the curriculum is to be real, effective, and true. The fundamental tones, at any rate, cannot be altered, though there may be slight variations in the harmonics: but even these minor variations, if not carefully chosen, cause a hideous discordance in the whole chord.

If these observations are correct, it is obvious, first, how futile it is for a pupil to enter a school for a time short of the full course; the course is only of real permanent value when completed, that is the deliberate design of its framer: secondly, how disastrous to real growth of intellect and character must be a course not scientifically designed by an educator, but chosen according to the whim of the pupil, or the caprice of the parent.¹ American educators themselves point out how much of the school training is utterly useless owing to this picking and choosing of pupils. A boy takes up a subject in the fall, and drops it in the spring. This indiscriminate choice has a bad moral effect on the pupil. He fails to see the purpose of school training, and the whole significance of education is lost. Moreover, the system introduces the specialist in place of the class teacher in the school; and the play of mind against mind, which is so valuable for character-forming, is lost.

However, these extreme aspects of this choice of subjects are being recognised and guarded against. There is a universal endeavour, especially in the cities, on the part of the teachers, to prolong the curriculum common to the whole school, and to allow "electives" only in the last year, and within certain well-defined limits, and to have the electives, too, such as shall be, as far as possible, true equivalents. This does not necessitate the acceptance of the doctrine of equivalence for all studies. A limit will be put to the choice of the pupil, and, moreover, he will be guided in his choice. Some such

¹ "We hear of a senior who took for his electives Spanish, French, and lectures on music and art, not because they were strong courses in the line of his tastes and tendencies, but because they were the lines of least resistance." (Baker, *Education and Life*, p. 73.)

guarded system of electives will doubtless prove the best compromise between the social and pedagogic ideals of the American people.

As a rule, a pupil enters the high school at fourteen years of age, though in Boston admission may take place at twelve. The late age at which the true secondary studies commence has proved a very serious hindrance to the work of the schools, and it has been strongly urged that some secondary studies, such as French, Latin, Algebra, and Science, should be introduced into the primary school curriculum for children over ten or eleven years.

There are two methods of instruction observable in the American high school. One, the text-book method, at its best is none too good; at its worst, it is no method at all. It is the method in vogue in the majority of high schools, and its purpose is to master the contents of the text-book.¹ This process may be merely an effort of memory, or it may develop into a course of logical reasoning. The oral method of teaching, as seen in England and Germany, is practically unknown in America.

In a few of the best schools, as we have already noticed, the heuristic method is gradually being adopted, and in the hands of a trained, skilful teacher there can be no two opinions as to its superiority. Unfortunately, it is owing to the lack of professional training of the teacher that the text-book is still king of the school.

In languages, ancient and modern, the aim of the American teacher is, in the short time at his disposal, to teach his pupils to *read* the foreign tongue. Grammar takes up a subordinate part; practically but little prose and no verse are taught, nor is the ground covered very extensive. Some two or three books in Latin and Greek are taken, and the end set before the pupil is to be able to read these with a certain amount of fluency and ease. Of course, incidentally, a good deal of grammar is picked up, and throughout an endeavour is made to reproduce the old worlds of Rome and Athens. In modern languages the necessity of speaking these tongues does not

¹ "Generally the teachers have no scientific command of their subject, and in their dependence on the text-book do not distinguish between essentials and subordinate facts." (Dr. Schlee of Altona, *C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 543.)

appeal to the American, and the aim of the secondary school is to produce a certain facility of easy translation.¹

English literature is said to be very well taught in many American schools; but, though more time is given to it, history is no better taught in America than in England. The American child only makes acquaintance with the history of his own land, as a rule, when he has reached thirteen years.

The school hours in America are 9 to 12 and 2 to 4, or from 9 to 1.30, with no afternoon meeting. The public high-school pupils have heavy home tasks. "American boys and girls seem expected to work much harder than English; for, after school hours, . . . there are a good many home-lessons to be prepared, chiefly, it seemed to me, learning from text-books." (Zimmern.)

School games are not so developed and organised in the American as in the English secondary school, but more so than in the German and French.

Other means are adopted of developing *esprit de corps*; thus, oratorical contests are held between different schools, as well as occasional musical contests.²

The classes are generally organised by the pupils, and sometimes the whole discipline and government of the school are largely vested in school officers, selected from among

¹ "In modern languages," says Professor Emil Hausknicht, "I have found everywhere (with the exception of Boston, which certainly has the best schools) a method of instruction which beggars description, for it is a waste of time, and calls for no intellectual labour on the part of pupils and teacher." (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 525.)

² "While I was in Chicago," remarks Salmon, "I attended a most interesting competition. There is a literary and debating society in connection with each high school, and once a year the societies engage in a public oratorical contest, each being represented by its champion. A prize of 100 dollars is given to the first, of 75 dollars to the second, and of 50 dollars to the third, with gold medals in addition. This year the competition took place in a large and beautiful concert hall, which, in spite of a minimum charge of 25 cents for admission, was crowded. The chairman was a boy, and the whole proceedings were conducted by the children themselves. Two girls and seven boys entered, and they discoursed on such subjects as 'Freedom's Martyr' (Lincoln), 'Our Foreign Policy,' 'A Poet of Peace and a Poet of War.' They declaimed with all the confidence of old politicians, and put as much energy and earnestness into their speeches as if they were striving to win votes for the right party. The three presidents of the three great local universities were the judges of 'thought and composition,' while two distinguished lawyers and a senator were the judges of 'delivery.'"

themselves by the pupils in public meeting assembled. The "Graduation" or Speech-day of the American school, too, is a function of considerable *éclat* and importance.

The only system of examination that the secondary school is subject to, or rather prepares for, is that of the entrance examination to the colleges, which is conducted entirely by the professors; and the serious objections to this examination, and its evil influence on the school, have already been suggested. In place of this examination a system is now in vogue and extending called the "accrediting" system.

The college authorities accept pupils from certain schools without examination, and on the recommendation of the school principal, on condition that these schools submit to an inspection by the university-college authorities. In fact, the school is inspected in lieu of the scholar being examined. This system has spread rapidly, and in 1896 there were 42 State universities and agricultural and mechanical colleges, and about 150 other institutions where it had been adopted.

The American secondary teacher is not, as a rule, expected to possess professional qualifications different from those required of the primary teacher, but, in practice, some university training is a further qualification, and a degree is becoming the standard requirement in some cities. Professional training, too, is highly desirable, but by no means indispensable. Secondary teachers in America, however, do not, as in England, it has been said, think so well of themselves, or so poorly of their profession, that they consider a training unnecessary. Indeed, there are more chairs of pedagogy, and more students of pedagogy in American universities than elsewhere in the world, and the best of American city teachers have undoubtedly a professional enthusiasm that will compensate for much.

In the year 1897, Massachusetts, the first of the States in educational efficiency, had 20 per cent. of its secondary teachers with only the licence to teach in primary schools; 13 per cent. possessed a certificate from a normal school, 66 per cent. had a college certificate, and 1 per cent. were graduates of scientific schools. "In the State of New York in 1898, 32 per cent. of the teachers in secondary schools (not including principals) were college graduates, 39 per cent. were normal school graduates, 19 per cent. were high school graduates, and 10 per cent. had had other training. Of the principals, 51 per cent. were college

graduates, 35 per cent. normal school graduates, 8 per cent. high school graduates, and 6 per cent. had had other training. These figures include private academies as well as public high schools. They include also one-year, two-year, and three-year schools, as well as fully developed high schools and academies.

"An inquiry into the preparation of teachers in the secondary schools of California, in October 1897, showed that of 522 teachers then employed in the public high schools of the State, 308, or 59 per cent., were college graduates.

"These figures may be taken as representing the conditions which obtain in some of the more favoured sections of the country." (*A.E.*, 190.)

In discussing the system of America, it is important to remember that the democratic ideal has been a constant aim of the American people. They have from the beginning placed that as the pole-star of their hopes. In the pursuit of this ideal they have discovered obstacles which have at times appeared almost insurmountable, and at times they seem to lapse from the full confession of their faith. We believe that this land of England has the same long and wearisome path in front of her. We believe that this democratic ideal is the aim, all unconscious though it be, of the best minds of England. So that the difficulties that American educators have to face to-day, English educators must face to-morrow.

It is to America, not to Germany, that England must look for guidance in the development of her national system of education.

We have already seen that the first article of faith in this democratic doctrine is the essential solidarity of the school—*one school for all*.

All children of the nation between certain ages and certain abilities will be found in the same school. Each school will be independent of the one above or below it—it will live its own life and give its children only the best.

The curriculum of the secondary school will be a development, a fuller growth of that of the primary. The two curricula will differ only in quantity, not in kind. The essential solidarity of the curriculum of both schools will be recognised.

We have noticed the American primary school endeavouring to meet the needs for a complete primary training, which the

vast majority of its pupils ask for, and endeavouring also to prepare to the best of its ability the *élite* of its pupils for the secondary school. It has been suggested that secondary studies should be introduced into the three higher grades of the primary school, but this smattering of secondary studies would probably have, on the whole, an unhappy effect on the majority of primary school pupils.

Other teachers advocate the commencement of the secondary school course at twelve years instead of fourteen years of age. It is universally acknowledged that fourteen is a very late age for the pupil to begin secondary studies, and this late age undoubtedly accounts for the very superficial knowledge of real secondary studies that the average high school pupil possesses on leaving school. This late age of beginning and the short course of the secondary school—viz., four years—make a comparison between the attainments of the American secondary pupil with the secondary pupil of other countries unfair.

This system affords a sharp contrast to the systems of France and Germany. Indeed, as purely instruction machines there is hardly a comparison possible, and the product of the French or German system, looked at from the point of view of intellectual attainments, is far superior to the product of the American school.

Yet as a preparation for life—as a place for the development of character and the growth of individuality—who will decide between these schools?

This American system of cheap day secondary schools has much in it that is instructive to English people, for it is such a system as this that is needed in England to supplement the work done in our Public Schools and in the best of the grammar schools. Such schools as these, like the Realschulen of Germany, are in many respects much closer to life than the more highly-organised and complete classical schools of England, Germany, and France. It is true that the pupils from the high schools often have but a poor knowledge of the subjects of instruction; nevertheless, they have preserved the natural curiosity and acquisitiveness which children always take to school but rarely bring away with them, their physical stamina has not been lowered by excessive mental toil, the school games have developed their muscular powers and nourished their self-resource, and they leave school, not indeed cultured citizens, but with a certain mental alertness; finally,

during their school life they have not lost touch with the life outside. They go into the throng with ready wits, keen senses, and a complete consciousness that the victories of life are in front, not behind them.

Their intellectual taste has not been satiated but only sharpened by school life. They lack knowledge, but they have not lost the desire for knowledge, and they have acquired a certain power of securing knowledge for themselves. In fact, to the American, school is the beginning, not the end of education.

CHAPTER XII.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND.

THERE is perhaps small wonder that the scientific observer, in contemplating the apparent incoherence and the multiplicity of endeavour of the English school, after his survey of the beautifully symmetrical and carefully organised systems of France and Germany, must wring his hands in despair at the seeming obstinacy of the English people. We have already seen how, in their persistent but mistaken loyalty to national ideals, they deliberately handicapped themselves in the fight for an efficient and comprehensive system of primary education. To-day, the same process is being repeated in the field of secondary training. In no country in the world, not even in America, is the distrust of State interference so instinctive, so keen, as in England.

The secondary school system of England is the expression of Saxon individuality and self-help. Despite its obvious limitations, its imperfections, its inadequacies, it is as characteristic of the English people as the symmetrical system of France is of the French people. To quarrel with it is to quarrel with the national genius.

There is an unfortunate tendency to hyperbole when the scientific educationist refers to the secondary school system of England; but it should not be forgotten that the recent Royal Commission, with a finer appreciation of the real needs of the people, came to the conclusion that no revolutions were desirable or necessary, only correlation and co-ordination of existing forces. What our system needs is the touch of a magician's wand, which will organise, not create, and out of the present chaos produce order and symmetry.

The system, if such it can be called, is both an expression and a result of that principle of self-help so dear to the Anglo-Celt. Here a man has worked and lived. He saw his duty to his people, and did it, so far as in him lay. He gave of his best; he founded a school for the education of the poor of his town. There, again, a community realised its necessities, and

to the best of its ability met them. There was no appeal to the State. What was done was done of the spirit of independence and self-help. Such spasmodic and casual effort lacks the comprehensive and complete character of State-help; nevertheless, it has its virtues.

Thus arose this English agglomeration of schools which we see to-day, and which is in some way or another endeavouring to meet the needs of a great modern community. It may be inadequate and even inefficient, yet it is national, and in its variety more interesting than some other systems. It, at any rate, occasionally allows individuality to blossom. It does not compel the uniformity of type of the bureaucratic system. "We cannot exist without the right of free expression of opinion on moral and religious questions. To great numbers of English people nothing matters in comparison with this. Better poverty, better imprisonment, better national disaster, than any curtailment of the freedom of conscience. And freedom of conscience implies freedom to teach what you believe. And freedom to teach what you believe implies variety of schools. And variety of schools means the lack of a tidy national system, at once orderly, and uniform, and cheap. In short, the English ideal of a national system of education is a far more complex thing than the current German or French ideal. It aims not at uniformity upon a high average level of intellectual efficiency, but at a synthesis of varying types of school, reaching, through freedom of development, their own characteristic ideals of true efficiency. And you cannot have freedom for good schools without freedom for bad schools too. In short, we must pay for freedom at the price of tolerated inefficiency." (R. P. Scott, *What is Secondary Education?* p. 28.)

There is, it must be confessed, a serious drawback to modern systems of training; and the more perfect those systems are, the greater is the danger. A national system may, as an educational machine, be too perfect. It works so smoothly, grinds so exceedingly small, winnows so carefully, that every grain that passes through the sieve of the machine is absolutely identical with every other grain. There is an extraordinary uniformity in the product. Only the average type may pass through; so all abnormalities are reduced to averages.

In France and Germany, bureaucracy has developed so perfect a machine for the manufacture of cultured citizens, that almost the only individuality left in national life is an artificial,

not a natural characteristic. One dreads to think what Germany would be were the cherished freedom of the university destroyed. Of course such systems produce uniformly high results if measured by intellectual attainments.

The intellectual standard of the German or French secondary school is undoubtedly higher than that of the average English or American, and the mental equipment of the finished pupil of the two former is higher than that of the latter. But at what a cost has this higher equipment been obtained, and how much of this heavy armour can the poor youth hope to carry with him through life? Nature, the great physician, has a ready way of getting rid of such superfluous burdens. She will sift out the material for the pupil, and, though she may leave but little of this artillery at his command, he will find that the somewhat primitive bow and arrow she equips him with instead, will prove of much greater service in the struggle of life. Mobility here, as elsewhere, is of greater value than weight.

The most characteristic feature of the English school is its great diversity. This diversity is very interesting, but it adds enormously to the difficulty of description. No general statement can be made of either the school or the teacher. It is often asserted, and possibly with truth, that in this system are some of the very best, as well as some of the very worst secondary schools in the world. On the one hand are the great public schools, which charge fees higher than those of any other schools, and on the other hand are the miserable private "academics," which depend for a precarious existence on the colossal ignorance and pride of the *bourgeois*. "A vast number of boys and girls are being influenced for weal or woe—mostly the latter—in miserable travesties of schools, no better—except in the matter of physical treatment—than Dotheboys Hall; in many seminaries of a less degraded sort, the masters are still the refugees from other professions, in the sense that they have taken to teaching after failing miserably in other lines; ideas they have none, except how to extort money from the gullible, and by dint of concentrating their whole attention on one object all through life they, like Bismarck and other great and estimable characters, achieve success. They do extort money; they have no notion whether they teach, or why they teach, or what teaching means; they must often be astonished that the supply of children of the gullible seems to hold out so well; they must be permanently

keeping the tongue in the cheek; but no matter, if the children keep coming, into what they turn them. Nobody seems to care; why, then, should the schoolmaster, so long as he somehow makes a modest, though dingy and dishonourable 'pile' against his dingy and dishonourable old age? This is the sort of thing that is going on. The patriots talk tall about the future of England, and I am not one to belittle it; but there is a huge amount of preventable waste of fine material, good brains, good bodies, English common-sense, English uprightness, all because we don't care enough for our neighbours' children to ask what is becoming of them when they go to school." (Lyttelton in *What is Secondary Education?* p. 21.)

The English secondary schools may (following the Education Department) be conveniently divided into five classes :—

1. Schools controlled by a private individual or by partners in private enterprise. These are private adventure schools.
 2. Schools controlled by a committee representing a body of subscribers, but not registered as a company.
 3. Schools controlled by a limited liability company.
 4. Schools regulated by—
 - (a) Royal Charter.
 - (b) Act of Parliament.
 - (c) Scheme of the Court of Chancery.
 - (d) Scheme under the Endowed Schools or Charitable Trusts Acts.
 - (e) Scheme under Section 75 of the Elementary Education Act of 1870.
 - (f) Some other legal instrument.
- (5.) Schools controlled by a local public authority.

The number of schools and scholars coming under each of these classes is shown in the following tables :—

SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

Forms of Control.		Number of Schools.	Per Cent. of Whole.	Number of Boys.	Per Cent.
Private Enterprise	...	1,311	66.9	46,617	38.1
Subscribers	...	70	3.6	8,719	7.1
Companies	...	48	2.5	5,188	4.2
Endowed, etc.	...	502	25.6	59,517	48.6
Local Authority	...	27	1.4	2,272	1.8

SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

Forms of Control.	Number of Schools.	Per Cent.	Number of Girls	Per Cent.
Private Enterprise	2,886	91.0	80,286	70.3
Subscribers	99	3.1	6,321	5.5
Companies	99	3.1	13,238	11.6
Endowed, etc.	86	2.7	14,119	12.3
Local Authority	3	.1	275	.2

MIXED SCHOOLS.

Forms of Control.	Number of Schools.	Per Cent.	Number of Pupils.	Per Cent.
Private Enterprise	970	90.1	26,027	65.3
Subscribers	28	2.6	3,626	9.0
Companies	3	.3	308	0.7
Endowed, etc.	31	2.7	3,935	7.5
Local Authority	46	4.1	6,996	17.4

Of the fourth class, that of the endowed schools, there are 619 schools, as follows :—

Regulated by.	Boys' Schools. Number of.		Girls' Schools. Number of.		Mixed Schools. Number of.		Total Number of.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
I. Royal Charter...	33	6,152	6	752	4	375	43	7,279
II. Act of Parliament ...	22	5,295	2	294	—	—	24	5,589
III. Scheme of Court of Chancery...	22	2,968	1	33	2	114	25	3,115
IV. Scheme under Endowed Schools Act...	346	38,819	65	11,817	11	849	422	51,485
V. Scheme under Charitable Trusts Act ...	44	4,166	2	434	5	746	51	5,346
VI. Scheme under sec. 75, Elem. Educ. Act ...	1	100	2	119	—	—	3	219
VII. Some other legal instrument ..	34	2,017	8	670	9	951	51	3,638
Total	502	59,517	86	14,119	31	3,035	619	76,671

Thus 25 per cent. of all the secondary schools for boys were endowed, and only 2½ per cent. of those for girls, though the endowment may be only a few shillings.

At the head of the English secondary school system stand the nine great public schools—namely, Winchester, Eton, Westminster, Charterhouse, Rugby, Harrow, Shrewsbury, St. Paul's, and Merchant Taylors'. In this list should be included Marlborough, Clifton, Cheltenham, Wellington, Haileybury, City of London, King's College, Dulwich, Sherborne, Uppingham, etc.

In 1897 the nine schools just mentioned were educating nearly 5000 boys. In all the secondary schools of England of equal intellectual calibre to them, there were another 19,000 pupils being educated. In other words, there are some 24,000 pupils receiving a first-grade secondary education in England, which is a fraction of the comparable number in Germany or France. If we take the Lycée and the Gymnasium only, and neglect altogether the other schools that are giving a comparable education in France and Germany, we have for 1897 the following figures:—

Lycée, 52,427.
Gymnasium, 78,011.
English First-grade Schools, 24,000.

These figures show clearly how inadequate our first-grade secondary education is. However, it is to be remembered that a large number of the French and German scholars are in those schools in order to escape military service, and to secure certain social advantages. Were these withdrawn the numbers attending those schools would soon diminish, and the scholars would be found in the modern secondary school.

In England, on the other hand, there is no organised class of modern schools, and it is owing to this that the proportion of children attending true secondary schools is but a fraction of those of Prussia and France.

"Great is the danger of that State in which only a small élite are well educated and instructed. In times of unrest they cannot exercise the control they ought, because they speak a language of which the crowd in its ignorance must necessarily fail to appreciate the arguments and importance." (Cloudesley Brereton, *What is Secondary Education?* p. 103.)

The vast majority of these public schools are boarding-schools, situated often near or in some secluded village, far from the busy tracks of life. Their pupils vary from 300 to 1000.

The age of admission is generally between eleven and fourteen years, but, if the school has a preparatory school attached, boys are admitted as early as seven or eight. Boys are not allowed, as a rule, to remain after nineteen years of age. Indeed, many leave before they complete the course, proceeding to a "crammer's" to obtain the modicum of intellectual equipment necessary for entering the university, army, or profession. They are henceforth old public-school boys, and socially that is worth much to them.

As we shall see later, the main energies of these schools are devoted to providing a classical training, and some of the boys succeed in obtaining it.¹

An attempt has of recent years been made to modernise the curricula, but with most indifferent success. However, any possible injurious effects of such a training are guarded against in two ways. First, by carefully regulating the quantity of intellectual training given; and secondly, by modifying the effects of the intellectual training by copious and well-organised courses of physical training.

In no schools in the world are the games so well organised and utilised for the education of youth.² They are an integral, and probably the most valuable, portion of the public school curriculum. The most permanent and valuable attributes of a public-school training are those engendered, not in the classroom, but in the playing-field. These are the virtues that compel boys to live and die as English gentlemen. The English public-school masters first showed the pedagogic world the educational value of play. Their faith in the virtues

¹ The proportion of time devoted to the classics in the public school is double that in the Gymnasium and Lycée.

² "The Germans had the philosophy of play, the English had an intuitive love of play, and love is a greater impelling force than philosophy. English young men never played in order to expand their lungs, to increase their circulation, to develop their muscles in power and agility, to improve their figures, to add grace to their bearing, to awaken and refine their intellectual powers, or to make them manly, courageous, and chivalrous. They played enthusiastically for the mere love of play, and all these and other advantages resulted from their play." (J. L. Hughes, quoted by Chamberlain, *The Child in Folk-Thought*, p. 201.)

of games they share with the followers of Froebel—strange companions!

Another characteristic type of the English public school is the great day-school, such as St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Manchester, Bradford, and Bedford Grammar Schools, etc.—schools which in intellectual standing are admittedly equal, if not superior, to the “boarding” public schools. These schools are in many respects closely comparable to the best of the German secondary schools. They have a well-equipped modern side, with scientific laboratories, museums, and workshops. In some of them an endeavour is made to develop, by means of organised games and close social intercourse of master and pupil, some of those valuable traits which are engendered by the boarding system of the public school.

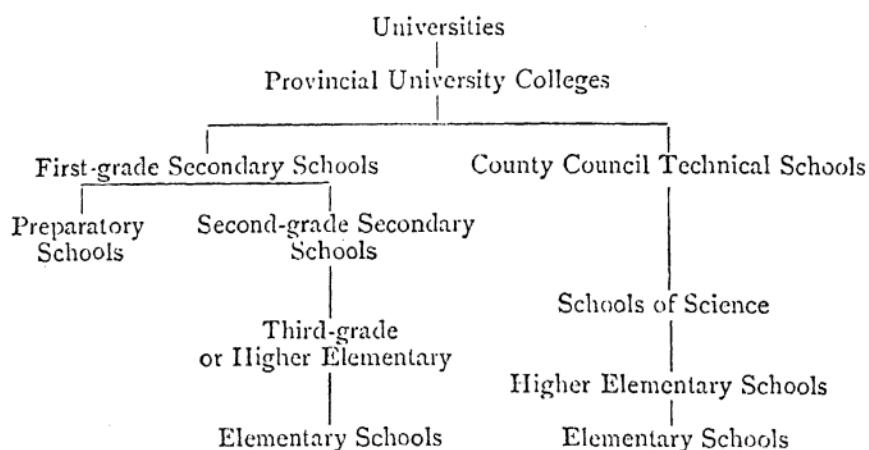
The next great class of English secondary schools to engage attention are the grammar schools, which are distinguished from the public schools mainly by being more “local” in character, by giving less attention to games and more to lessons, by charging lower fees, and by having a large number of day boys as well as some boarders.¹ The curriculum of the grammar schools is, if anything, even more purely classical than that of the public school. The scientific training is often of a meagre character, and the modern language teaching is little better. The whole curriculum is curiously out of touch with modern requirements, and fitted only for the training of classical scholars at Oxford or Cambridge.

When it is remembered that this is the only kind of secondary training obtainable in the majority of English towns, and that often these provincial grammar schools can hope to turn out only perhaps one scholar every year for the university, the futility of the whole process is obvious. Of course one is speaking here of the smaller provincial grammar schools. Of the grammar schools situated in big progressive communities a very different description is called for. The variety of the English grammar schools baffles the ingenuity of the generaliser.

There are, too, the municipal day-schools and the higher elementary (grade) Board schools, which are secondary

¹ The return of the Board of Education showed that out of 122,313 pupils in boys' schools, 35.7 per cent. were boarders; out of 114,239 pupils in girls' schools, 18 per cent. only were boarders; and in mixed schools, 13 per cent. of the boys and 9 per cent. of the girls were boarders.

schools of the third grade, and correspond closely to the higher "Burger" schools and middle schools of Germany, and the higher primary schools of France. These have been already referred to. The municipal day-school has hitherto been distinguished by its devotion to technical accomplishments rather than to ancient tongues. The following plan, taken from Baumeister, illustrates the hierarchy of English education :—



Lastly, there is to be noticed the great group of "private" schools in which so large a proportion of all secondary pupils are being educated—viz., 40 per cent. of boys and 70 per cent. of girls.¹ These institutions are generally the private property of the head teacher.

Some of them, particularly the "preparatory" schools, are exceedingly efficient schools. These take boys at seven, and keep them until they enter the public-school at twelve to fourteen years of age. Much of the best public-school education is received in them. The curriculum, fixed as it is by the entrance examination of the public school, is much too heavy for boys of this tender age. Four languages are actually being simultaneously studied by boys under thirteen years of age! The curriculum is largely classical, but much is done by means of country walks and other means to help the pupil to organise his experience and realise his *milieu*.

Some of the English private schools are, on the other hand, probably unequalled elsewhere for utter inefficiency. Any

¹ Blue Book Cd. 8,447, 1898.

man who has sufficient pence to get his brass plate engraved with his name may call his house an "academy for the sons of gentlemen," and so beguile the ignorant and foolish parent, with whom the world is so well supplied. Well might a German teacher tell me with scorn, "In no country but yours would such charlatanism be tolerated."

These private schools are the public monuments of English philistinism. As a sympathetic French critic points out, to open a public-house or a music-hall one must be licensed, to open a school one need not even know how to read or write. It is quite sufficient if one can pretend to know.¹ It is very unfortunate that the class of society in England from which much of the stability of the State and a considerable proportion of the national genius is derived is, in this matter of education, more at the mercy of the rogue and knave than any other class of society. The aristocracy and upper middle-class have the public and grammar schools at their service, where they know that a certain *quid pro quo* is obtained; the working man has at his service the public primary and higher primary schools, where a certain education, guaranteed by the State, is obtainable gratuitously. But the vast bulk of the middle-class of England are left to their own untrained instincts to warn them of the trickery hidden behind brass plates and mystic symbols. Yet it is amongst this class which is from generation to generation hoarding its intellectual riches, storing these up in healthy bodies, that the germs of genius are most likely to be found.

All these secondary schools have a remarkable similarity in curriculum. The public school with its classical curriculum is the standard and ideal of all. According to their means they endeavour to approach this ideal. If their means are ample, their classical course is strong and their modern language and science teaching not weak. If, however, their means are meagre, their classical course will still remain, but weaker; while science and modern languages will be negligible quantities in their curriculum.

The supremacy of the classics is unquestioned in these schools. Here and there the stress of competition, or the pressure of outside authorities, has compelled the addition of other elements, but each addition is made unwillingly, in defer-

¹ See *L'Éducation en Angleterre*, Leclerc, p. 16.

ence to no pedagogic principle, and in accordance with no philosophic plan.

There is indeed but one curriculum, and even that one has been mutilated and depreciated by these haphazard additions.

A curriculum, to be of any value for training, must be the deliberate design of the philosophic educator, working with no thought but how best to fashion the culture-elements of the curriculum for the unfolding of character.

So unorganised is this system of secondary schools that even to-day, after several Royal Commissions have been at work, it is almost impossible to quote any definite figures as to secondary education in England. Recently the Board of Education obtained returns from over 6000 schools, and these figures, though not so conclusive as might be desired, throw an interesting light upon the present condition of secondary education in England.

The phraseology of educational statistics is so ambiguous and vague that no undue rigidity must be applied to these figures, nevertheless this return has corrected some estimates that had previously been made.¹ The return showed that 158,502 boys and 133,042 girls were receiving so-called secondary instruction; 50 per cent. of the boys and 43 per cent. of the girls were between 12 and 16 years of age; 41 per cent. of the boys and 46 per cent. of the girls were under 12; and only 9 per cent. of the boys and 11½ per cent. of the girls were over 16. 1,423 of the schools had no pupils over 14 years of age. As regards the size of the schools, more than half of them had less than 31 scholars, and 91 per cent. had less than 101; only 2½ per cent. had over 200 pupils. Of the mixed schools, 65 per cent. had less than 31 scholars. Two and a half per cent. of these schools had no pupils over 10 years of age, and 15 per cent. had none over 14 years, and 27½ per cent. none over 16; while 20 per cent. had pupils over 18 years of age. The staffing of these schools is as follows:—Of the men-teachers exclusively engaged in the boys' schools, 56 per cent. are university graduates; in the girls' schools, 29

¹ Previous estimates had given the number of pupils pursuing secondary studies as 895,000, of whom it was estimated that 90,000 were in higher-grade Board schools, and 600,000 in private schools. Disappointment has been expressed at the small number, as shown by the return, who are receiving secondary education; but, personally, we regret the quality more than the quantity.

per cent.; and in the mixed schools, only 26 per cent. of the regular men-teachers are graduates. Of the women-teachers, in boys' schools 11 per cent., in girls' schools $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and in mixed schools only 8 per cent. are of university rank. But worse still is the fact that 32 per cent. of the boys' schools and 74 per cent. of the girls' schools have no graduate on the regular school staff. There is one teacher for every 20 pupils in these schools.

It is difficult to describe the school buildings since they vary so much. The public schools are well housed. They generally possess museums of natural history, one or two science laboratories, gymnasium, swimming-baths, extensive playing-fields for football and cricket, courts for fives and racquets, as well as boats and boat-houses. There is also a workshop, where the boys may learn, if they wish, the elements of carpentry. The class rooms are often as bare as those of the German school, and the desks are generally cumbersome and unhygienic. They are lovingly retained to injure the spines of the boys of the twentieth century because they injured the boys of the sixteenth.¹

The science laboratories are not particularly well fitted, but the fact is that the science side and master are only tolerated. They are not indigenous to the school. In one public school the teachers of mathematics, modern languages, or natural science are expressly disqualified from becoming house-tutors. There is evidently something suspicious, if not openly immoral, in these studies that makes their directors unfit associates and guides for small boys!

In both public and grammar school the most sumptuous portion of the school premises is the chapel. Here the masters and boys daily meet for prayers at 8.30 A.M., after breakfast.

On Sunday there are two full services, and the head-master, who is generally a clergyman himself, takes this opportunity of talking to the boys of those ideals of manhood which he and his staff are endeavouring to inculcate. These talks serve as

¹ "The great oculist, Liebreich, visiting Eton College some twenty years ago, discovered that only one class-room in the whole school was constructed on principles which he considered sound, and the new class-rooms, built at a great expense, were in some respects the worst in the place." (O. Browning in Preface to Herbart's *Education*, translated by Felkin.)

opportunity for much wholesome advice and counsel. There can be no question as to the help they afford for the conduct of the school, particularly when the head-master knows and understands and sympathises with the spiritual and moral needs of boys. In all the public schools the chapel service is that of the Church of England. Many of the boys are sons of Nonconformists; but no great harm appears to be wrought by, nor is any great hardship apparent from, this temporary conformity. Some of the pleasantest recollections of school life cluster round the chapel. No service is more beautiful, simple, and impressive. No school in the world engenders as staunch a loyalty as the public school. It has nerved old boys to nobler deeds and higher ideals. This loyalty is the best evidence of how noble is the work of the school.

Although many of these schools are, as has been said, well housed, and sometimes well furnished, yet many of the fittings, etc., are antiquated and defective, and it would be no exaggeration to say that the premises of not a few well-known secondary schools in England would be condemned by a Government inspector. Many of these schools would, as far as buildings, fittings, etc., are concerned, compare unfavourably with the modern Board schools.

The same thing is true in Prussia, and I well remember the indignant eloquence and scorn with which the director of a famous secondary school spoke of the extravagant and sumptuous way in which a neighbouring "middle" (higher primary) school had been built and fitted. In France, too, the same conditions prevail.

M. Bréal assures us that it is after visiting the beautiful primary schools of French towns that one is struck by the miserable appearance of the Lycées. In those schools there are dual desks for the pupils, beautiful pictures for the walls, and a greater freedom, respect, and better pay for the teachers than for the teachers of the primary classes of the Lycée. It will be a happy day when the scholar of the Lycée is as well housed as the primary scholar. (*Excursions pédagogiques*, p. 315.)

The daily routine of the English schools is by no means uniform. In one such school the boys are called at 6.30 A.M. for morning "preparation," which begins at 7 A.M. and goes on till 7.45. Then comes breakfast, followed by chapel. School begins at 8.45, and goes on until 10.30 A.M. An hour's break

is followed by school from 11.30 to 1 P.M. Dinner follows. In the summer there is afternoon school from 2 to 4 P.M., then tea and school games until 7 P.M., when evening "preparation" begins, and lasts until 9 P.M. Supper follows, and bed at 9.30 P.M. for the junior boys and 10 P.M. for the seniors.

In the winter the games are taken between 2 and 4 P.M., followed by school from 4 to 6 P.M. Tea follows, and "preparation" from 7 to 9 P.M. This evening "prep." is taken by the boys in the presence of a master, who maintains order. The older boys, however, take "prep." in their own private studies.

The school games are as carefully organised and graded as the school lessons. In cricket or football each boy is at the beginning of the term placed in a certain eleven or fifteen, according to his attainments, and in due course he will receive promotion, if his abilities justify it. No boy is exempt, except under medical advice, and any absence from the field is treated as an absence from the class-room. The games are an integral part of the curriculum.

In the autumn term the game is generally football; in the spring term it is varied—racquets, fives, steeplechase, etc. In the summer term it is cricket. Boys are not, as a rule, allowed to play other games, though occasionally golf and tennis have been tolerated in the case of individuals. The boys board in certain masters' houses. The masters and boys dine together, and, as a rule, the tone of these boarding-houses is most pleasant and homelike. There are few happier homes than a good boarding-house in a public school; and some fine characteristics are developed in these houses by the genial confidence and trust of master and boy. It is the softening tone engendered by a good mother's influence that these houses cannot compensate for.

The management and control of these secondary schools are, in the case of endowed schools, in the hands of trustees; in the case of proprietary schools, they are entrusted to a committee; and in the case of private schools, they are under the sole control of the owner, in other words, the head-master.

In endowed schools the Charity Commission have certain powers of drawing up a scheme for the administration of the funds, and of seeing that these schemes are duly carried out. But once the head-master is appointed he becomes for good or ill the educational autocrat of the school. The examples of

such men as Arnold and Thring have served to perpetuate this anomalous and unfortunate state of things, for the public only remembers the brilliant successes—the many failures of such a system are overlooked or forgotten. It has been said that autocracy, provided your autocrat is a perfect ruler, is the best form of government in the world. That is probably true, but too much is postulated. Perfect rulers are as scarce as perfect schoolmasters. The common experience is against this form of government.

The autocrat chooses his own satraps. The removal of the English head-master may mean, and sometimes does mean, the removal of all or many of the other masters in the school. This is insecurity of tenure of the most vicious type. It discourages a self-respecting man from remaining in the profession. Until such an anomaly disappears, there can be no true profession of secondary teaching in England.

What wonder is it that English teachers do not trouble to train for their future profession, when at any moment, and after many years' faithful service, they may discover that the signal for their senior's promotion is that for their own degradation?

This state of things does not hold for girls' schools, so that we find women plucking heart of grace, and qualifying themselves professionally as teachers.

The total annual endowment of the nine great public schools amounts to a large sum. These funds are, however, mainly devoted to the maintenance of foundation scholarships in accordance with the terms of the bequest. At Eton, for example, there are seventy-seven such scholars or "collegers." These scholarships were intended by the founders for poor boys, but, as Lord Salisbury once pointed out, the tendency of such bequests is to drift into the wrong hands—the rich rob the poor. Here in the English public school, as in the French Lycée, even were the poor boy able enough, he is not rich enough to accept these gifts. As a matter of fact, the standard of examination for these scholarships is such that a poor lad to-day has practically no chance of carrying off a foundation scholarship at a public school. Rich men are not ashamed to allow their sons to hold scholarships deliberately left for the sons of their poorer neighbours.

The total annual endowment of all secondary schools amounts to about £735,000, exclusive of the value of the

school sites and premises.¹ Unfortunately, this money is scattered up and down the country in a very uneven way. Some populous centres have no such funds, other localities have almost a plethora. Lancashire, with its population of over four million people, has annual endowments amounting to £38,000; the West Riding, with its two and a half million population, has £68,000 per annum as educational endowment; Devon, with a population of over six hundred thousand people, has £17,430 endowment; while Norfolk has £12,780 for its population of 450,000.

Another source of income recently tapped for secondary school purposes is the money derived from certain "Excise" duties—the so-called "whisky" money. This amounts to (1900) £867,000 per annum, of which sum £804,000 is devoted to secondary and technical education purposes, and is administered by the County Councils. "The local authorities all over the kingdom at once responded to the invitation, and in many cases, at first without educational knowledge or expert advice, proceeded to make grants to lecturers and vote money to institutions. The lecturers were often unprocurable or extremely unsatisfactory; but the demand improved the supply, wisdom came with experience; the better counties set a good example to the less fortunate, and education was greatly benefited. South Kensington took a very generous view of the scope of technical instruction, and—fortunately it may be for education in general, but unfortunately for any prospect of delimitation—it has sanctioned under the head of technical instruction almost every subject, except the classics, which can well be included under secondary education. It has neither restricted the subjects, nor has it endeavoured to secure their treatment from a technical point of view, and thus a great part of the grant has gone to secondary education, although many of the better secondary schools have either been unable to profit by it, or have had to sacrifice their educational ideals to specialisation." (Graham Balfour, *Educational Systems, etc.*, p. 182.)

The schools have been helped by these funds in several ways: new blood has been brought into the board of management, scholars from the primary schools have come in with maintenance scholarships, apparatus and laboratories for science

¹ By the abolition of fees in primary schools over £100,000 is rendered available for secondary education.

teaching have been furnished, the salaries of science teachers have been partly or entirely provided, inspection and help by expert officers have been afforded; finally, evening courses of lectures have served to popularise the local secondary school. All these have tended to modernise the curricula and vivify the teaching of these schools.¹

To supplement these Treasury funds, some of the County Boroughs have rated themselves for educational purposes, and thus another £45,000 per annum has been raised, whilst the non-County Boroughs and urban District Councils raise £37,000. Finally, a sum of nearly half a million is annually disbursed in grants from the Board of Education for secondary and technical studies.

It is impossible to state how much of the present school income is obtained from fees, but it is certainly a large proportion of the whole. In England the principle that secondary education must be paid for at cost price is generally accepted. The democratic principle of free secondary education available for all was deliberately rejected by the Royal Commission.²

In Wales the democratic system, but modified slightly, is at work, and with the happiest results. England lags behind.

The school fees in England vary from below £3 in some districts to £30 per annum at Harrow. (At Harrow, with extras, the fees amount to £53, which with £90 for boarding makes the total annual cost there £143, exclusive of £20 charged for entrance fees. In the "small" boarding-houses the boarding-fees are not £90 but £135 per annum.)

The Royal Commission found that in 1893 the secondary school fees in the counties of Bedford, Devon, Lancaster, Norfolk, Surrey, Warwick, and the West Riding were as follows:—

3.47 per cent. were under £3 per annum.

23.05	"	were between £3 and £6 per annum.
27.11	"	£6 "
15.30	"	£9 " £12 "
27.09	"	£12 " £15 "
3.98	"	were £15 and over.

The fees fixed depend mainly upon the cost per head. The

¹ Since 1889 the County Councils have established over 100 new secondary and higher primary schools, whilst over 200 schools have had their equipment for scientific and manual training improved.

² An American educator observes: "It would certainly seem from the general drift of the evidence that in England it is desired to segregate the

Royal Commission gave some very interesting figures bearing upon this cost of maintenance. "The representatives of the Head-Masters' Association, themselves head-masters of flourishing endowed schools, put the annual cost of maintaining such a school—one at £10, the other at £12. This estimate excludes rent or interest on capital for buildings, and provision for scholarships, and in the case of the larger estimate assumes that the number of scholars will be about 300. Sir Bernhard Samuelson and Mr. Bothamley thought it should be rather over than under £10. Miss Beale suggested the same figures. The Assistant-Masters' Association have submitted a detailed estimate showing that £12 4s. per head would be required for a school of 300. The Assistant-Mistresses' Association have also submitted an estimate giving £10 as the minimum cost per head in a school of 250 girls, but this includes the important item of rent. Comparing these estimates with the actual cost in schools of the same class as to which we have trustworthy information, we find that the cost per head in the three grammar schools for boys of King Edward VI. Foundation at Birmingham, where the numbers average about 300, is £10 10s.; at the Bedford Modern School, with 620 boys, it is £10 13s.; at Parmiter's School, London (320 boys), it is £10 6s.; and at Owen's School, London (377 boys), it is nearer £12 than £11. The representative of the College of Preceptors, speaking from a wide experience of private schools, estimated the cost at £10, but included in that figure the rent of buildings, and of course the profit on which the head-master lives. The class of school, however, was in this case perhaps rather lower than that generally contemplated.

"In the schools of the Girls' Public Day Schools' Company, the cost, deducting rent, would seem to be nearer £13 than £12 per head, but these schools are distinctly above the type to which the figures already given refer."

It has been estimated that there is at present an annual sum of over two million pounds available for secondary education. This, it is true, is capriciously distributed, but a central organising authority could soon remedy that. This

clever boys of poor parents . . . into schools which have a certain, more easily understood than described, tone about them, but at which the average boy shall not be instructed, at least not at State (scholarship, exhibition) expense."

sum, supplemented by a small local rate, ought to be, and can be made, sufficient to provide an adequate and efficient system of secondary education in England. If such a total sum is compared with that devoted to secondary purposes in France and Germany its capabilities will be recognised.

England's great need is a system of cheap and efficient day schools, similar in type to the Realschulen of Germany and the high schools of America. Our great provincial towns have long felt the need of such a system, and they have endeavoured through their school boards to provide such a training. The training provided by the English grammar school at present is no alternative for the training given by such schools.

The ideal, avowed or implied, of practically every grammar school in England is that based upon a training in the classics. They all imitate as best they can the classical work of the public school. They provide modern sides or alternatives, it is true, to meet local needs, so far as their resources permit, and preserve intact the classical fetish; but those are extraneous tasks, quite outside the real purpose of the school.

The schoolmasters estimate the value of their work, as indeed do their rivals, by the number of classical scholarships the *élite* of the school win annually. The backward boy, or even the average boy, is deliberately sacrificed to the brilliant boy. The parents of nine boys pay for the education of the tenth.

The fact is, that most of these English secondary schools do not appeal to the great commercial and mercantile classes. These do, indeed, sometimes send their boys to the public schools, but for social, not educational, reasons. If the truth were known, these great classes of modern English society have a profound and instinctive distrust of the training of the secondary school.

Fortunately, they recognise that the really permanent and valuable portion of that training is not that received in the class-room, but that obtained in the playing-fields, and, consequently, as a rule, no permanently pernicious effects follow from this devotion of the secondary school to the classical tongues. These parents well know how few boys are ever so far impressed by this intellectual training as to show its effect in their character—so transitory is its impress that it disappears with school life, whereas those characteristics developed in the playground and the “house” produce a permanent and far-reaching effect on the character of the youth.

Not only in curriculum, but also in the internal working of the school are the public schools carefully copied. The differences are in detail, not in principle.

Boys are admitted, as a rule, after the summer vacation. Promotion from form to form generally takes place twice a year. Boys who, owing to laziness or natural incapacity, fail to keep pace with the others, are asked to "withdraw." They are "superannuated."

The classes vary in size, the lowest being often forty strong, whilst the sixth or top form may consist of not more than a dozen boys. The average size of the class is twenty pupils.

The head-master is the complete and unquestioned autocrat of the school, and to him all questions of discipline are ultimately referred. He is the supreme court of appeal.

Corporal punishment is resorted to when necessary. Other forms of punishment are the setting of "lines" to be copied after school hours (for which system it is impossible to find a good word), as well as "detention," and punishment drill.

At Eton, besides the form-master, each boy has a "tutor," whose duty it is to help and generally look after him out of the class-room. We noticed a somewhat similar system in the Lycée, but there is an important distinction: the English tutor teaches a form, the French tutor may not. In other schools this special care of the boys is confided to the house-master, but should the latter be a teacher of natural science or modern languages, then his place as tutor and guide may be taken by one of the classical masters.

In these schools many of the minor details of discipline and order are delegated to the senior boys, or "prefects," to whom very considerable powers and privileges are committed. These boys also serve in some cases as intermediaries between head-master and school. This responsibility for the internal government of the school engenders in these boys habits of self-control and command which are of the highest value in after-life. On the other hand, the duties often seriously interfere with the studies of the boys, and there is a growing tendency to utilise the non-studious boys as prefects. This is unfortunate.

For all the public schools there are preparatory schools, either independent or attached. That of St. Paul's, for example, is independent, whereas that of Clifton is attached. Boys enter

these preparatory schools at about eight years of age, and remain there until they are eleven, twelve, or thirteen years. They then sit for the entrance examination to the public school, and, if successful, pass into the junior school. The curriculum of this junior school is generally the same for all boys, and includes Scripture, English subjects, French, Latin, and Mathematics. Greek is taken up in this school by boys preparing for the classical side of the senior school. At the Manchester Grammar School, even in this junior portion of the school there is a divergence of studies from the commencement.

This early specialisation is felt to be unfortunate, and attempts are being made in many schools to prolong the common studies of the school as far as possible.

We have already pointed out that these schools have a classical curriculum as a core, with "sides" for modern and scientific needs.

Some of the public schools, such as Eton, Winchester, and Charterhouse, have no regular modern "sides." The others have, as a rule, modern sides; St. Paul's, however, has not, but only a science side; whilst at the City of London School there are classical, modern, and science sides.

The following time-table will bring out the essential features of the work of these schools:—

TIME-TABLE OF HAILEYBURY COLLEGE (A PUBLIC SCHOOL),
SHOWING WEEK-HOURS FOR EACH SUBJECT.

FORM.	Scripture.	English.	History.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Greek.	Latin.	French.	German.	Drawing.	Physical Science.	Mathematics.
Classical Side—												
Form I. ...	2 ¹ ₂	—	2	—	—	7 ¹ ₂	7 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂ or 0	0 or 1 ¹ ₂	—	—	4 ¹ ₂
Form II. ...	2 ¹ ₂	2	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	6 ¹ ₂	6 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5	5
Form III. ...	2 ¹ ₂	3	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5 ¹ ₂	6 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5	5
Form IV. ...	2 ¹ ₂	—	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5	7 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5 ¹ ₂	5 ¹ ₂
Form V. ...	2 ¹ ₂	—	1 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	5	8 ¹ ₂	1 ¹ ₂	—	—	5 ¹ ₂	5 ¹ ₂
Form VI. ...	2 ¹ ₂	1	1 ¹ ₂	1	6	2 ¹ ₂	6 ¹ ₂	1	—	—	—	—
Modern Side—												
Form I. ...	2 ¹ ₂	—	1 ¹ ₂	—	—	5 or 0	3 ¹ ₂	4 ¹ ₂	3	0 or 5	9 ¹ ₂	9 ¹ ₂
Form II. ...	2 ¹ ₂	1	2	2	—	—	5 ¹ ₂	4 ¹ ₂	2	1 ¹ ₂	—	8 ¹ ₂
Form III. ...	2 ¹ ₂	1	1 ¹ ₂	3 ¹ ₂	3 ¹ ₂	—	6 ¹ ₂	5 ¹ ₂	1	—	—	5

(Report of the Royal Commission, 1895, quoted in *Teaching and Organisation*, Barnett, p. 29.)

The preponderance given to classics in these schools is brought out in the following table:—

HARROW SCHOOL (CLASSICAL SIDE).

—	Weekly School Hours.	Religion and Classics.	Mathematics.	Natural Science.	French.
Fifth Form	24½	17½	3½	2	1½
Remove and Shell	21¾	14½	3½	(a) 1½ (b) 1½	2½
Fourth Form	21¾	14½	3½	1½	2½

(See *Public Schools' Year-Book*.)

(a) In the second and third shells these hours are devoted to gymnastics.

(b) Drawing or singing.

The next table gives “a rough idea of the hours in school devoted each week to certain subjects at some boarding-schools”:—

Side.	Scripture and English Subjects.	Classics.	Modern Languages.	Drawing and Science.	Mathematics.
Classical Side ...	3	13 or 12	2 or 3	2 (in a portion of the school)	5
Modern Side ...	5 or 4	4	8 or 7	3 or 4	5 or 6

(Pollard, in Barnett's *Teaching and Organisation*.)

Most of these large secondary schools have endeavoured to meet the requirements of outside bodies by adopting concurrent curricula.

The more important of these bodies are:—

1. The universities. These, by their entrance examinations compel the retention of Greek, and by their scholarships do something to encourage the pursuit of mathematical and natural-science studies in the schools.

2. The professions. The liberal professions through their councils, and by means of their preliminary examina-

tions, exercise considerable control on the curricula of these schools.

3. The War Office and Admiralty, by their requirements for admission to Woolwich, Sandhurst, and the *Britannia*.

4. The Civil Service Commissioners, by their requirements for admission to the Indian and Home Civil Service.

This breaking up of a school into sides is apt to lead to dissipation of forces. Moreover, this early separation of boys destined for different careers is unfortunate. The corporate unity of school life is largely lost. Early specialisation is engendered. Too often, indeed, the modern side becomes the receptacle of the mediocrities of school, and its product is far inferior, as a rule, in intellectual skill to that of the classical side. The school life of the boy on the modern side of the day-school is often too short for any really valuable training.

To obviate these defects as far as possible, the boys are grouped for certain subjects according to their attainments. Such subjects are mathematics, science, and sometimes modern languages; so that although a boy may be in the third form for classics and English subjects, he may be in the fourth *set* for mathematics and second *set* for science.

This grouping has a double effect—it makes the classification of boys more elastic and appropriate, and tends to promote the common fellowship of the school. Further, it is economical.

In other schools the organisation is dependent upon the adoption of the system of "electives" or alternatives, which we noticed in the American high school. This choice of electives is restricted not by pedagogic reasons, but by the resources of the school. In one school Latin has as an alternative drawing! In another school the system of electives is absolutely unrestricted, and each boy may have a curriculum peculiar to himself. To obviate the more glaring dangers of such a system, the boys have special tutors, whose duty it is to watch over and counsel them during their school life.

The American system of "electives" has this to be said for it, that it is primarily designed to carry out in the school the democratic ideal of the people, and to allow free play for self-development and the growth of individuality. It was adopted for social and is justified largely by philosophical reasons, whether these be good or bad. In England the corresponding

system is often adopted sullenly and in deference to outside pressure. No endeavour is made to provide a philosophical basis for the English system.

The teaching of languages, both ancient and modern, in the average English school is based upon a thorough and mechanical grounding in grammar, which often succeeds in making the whole subject extremely distasteful to boys, and killing any possible interest they might once have taken in these subjects. The doctrine of mental training, of developing the memory, etc., by endless weary exercises, is unquestioned even to-day in many secondary schools.

The comparatively modern pedagogic idea of making instruction interesting and pleasant has so far only reached the school playground, where its effects are of the happiest. We may perhaps hope that equally happy will be the results when that idea has penetrated the class-room of the secondary school. Something is indeed done to increase the interest of the lessons in the top forms of the school, and in the sixth the classical lesson is often the centre of a series of wide and learned excursions into many fields of learning. These are admirable, and not only serve to fill up the many lacunæ of a purely classical training, but make the atmosphere of the class-room like unto that of life, and facilitate the adjustment of the pupil to his environment.

Although the vast majority of boys leave these schools with but a poor knowledge of Latin and Greek, yet a few, the best of the *sixth*, compare in their classical ability with the best fruit of the Gymnasium or Lycée. These develop into the classical scholars of Oxford and Cambridge, and worthily maintain the renown of their old school. They, like the ripe fruit of the Gymnasium and Lycée, are but a small fraction of the total number of boys in the school. In all three schools "many are called but few are chosen." Between these three boys, the classical scholar (*ripe*) of the public school, the Lycée, and Gymnasium, abler writers must judge. It is said that the public-school boy's knowledge of Greek is deeper than that of his rivals; but, on the other hand, the gymnasiast will have some knowledge of science and modern languages, and the French boy will have the best "style." Curiously enough, too, all three will, from experience, know the uses of *crib*s!

All three schools, by their social prestige, attract a vast

number of boys whose abilities are quite unable to seize the intellectual advantages of the place, and who might develop into worthy citizens were they sent to a school of different intellectual calibre. However, they have their use; it is by their sacrifice that the few elect ones gain. They may become *déclassés* and half-educated men, but they have the satisfaction of knowing that by their irresponsiveness they allowed the school freedom to give of its best to the chosen ones. They have all the selfish satisfaction of self-sacrifice.

Of the teaching of English subjects, little need or can be said. They are either neglected or deliberately snubbed. The secondary schools are in some ways the most unpatriotic schools in the land. Instead of saturating their boys with English ideas and ideals, and training them to appreciate the noble literature of their own land, they feed them with the somewhat doubtful ideals of Rome and Athens. In place of Shakespeare, Milton, Tennyson, and Ruskin, they enthrone Cæsar, Ovid, and Terence. If good Englishmen are bred in these schools, it is in spite of, not because of, the food they get there.

In the teaching of science considerable variety prevails. Nearly all the better schools are provided with laboratories—and the others with apologies! In nearly all the schools taking science, chemistry is the favourite and first science taken up, though there can be no question that from every point of view a course in physics should precede the course in chemistry. The course in chemistry may be, if the master is conservative, of the old test-tubing kind; if the master is progressive, then the course will probably be based on heuristic principles. In any case, only a fraction of the boys ever take up practical science. This is fortunate for those who do, as they get more of the teacher's attention thereby.¹

¹ Professor Earl Barnes, in an address delivered a little while ago in London, touched upon the work of these schools, and of their choice of curriculm. His views are interesting, because he is a distinguished American educator, with a hearty hatred of all "caste" in education:—"Eton, Winchester, and other large public schools were very sound institutions from the point of view of the object they had to accomplish. The boy learned how to command by being taught how to obey. All strong rule must rest on self-control, and the English aristocrat knew that. So his boy was pushed and bullied into subjection, not by a higher authority, but by his own fellows and equals; and just when he was in danger of losing his spirit, and becoming submissive instead of merely

We have referred to some of the various outside bodies which by their examinations control the curricula. Thring, long ago, pointed out the pernicious effect of outside interference with the school. England seems to have adopted the very worst form of outside control it is possible to conceive.

In Germany there is one examination, conducted mainly by the teachers.

In France there are two alternative examinations, conducted by the university authorities.

In America there are the university examinations of varying character; but, by the system of "accrediting," these are being rapidly abolished.

In England there is a variety of university examinations, a multiplicity of professional examinations; there are "local" examinations, Joint-Board examinations, College of Preceptors examinations, etc., etc., all primarily intended for the testing of children's relative capacities for facts, incidentally intended for the employment of examiners and secretaries, and inevitably resulting in the torture of head-masters and makers of curricula, and in a serious depreciation of the value of the school as a training place for the development of character. "The art of making up time-tables," said a head-master, "is something like the knack of putting a puzzle together."

This chaos of examinations is due primarily to the lack of obedient, he found there was still a later arrival than himself to command, while he continued to render obedience to those above him. At none of those schools was the young aristocrat greatly worried by knowledge. Social control was the object in which his chief energies were engaged, and it was all the more effective because not talked about. The intellect, meanwhile, was kept fairly busy with formal subjects. In 99 cases out of 100 caste-education rested on classics in a dead language. They had seen that a child was likely to become democratic through the logical activity of his mind. That was guarded against by a classical curriculum. Science would always come slowly in those schools. If boys studied in the physical and chemical laboratories—where they learned to look for the causes of effects and the effects of causes—they would be in danger of applying the same reasoning to human affairs, and the social organisation of to-day was hardly fitted to stand the strain. It being noted that so much labour and capital combined to produce so much profit, question would arise why the latter shared it so disproportionately with the former. But in classical studies, when the question arose, 'Why is this case ending "a"?' the only replies forthcoming were, 'Because it is. Because it has always been so.' Later, consequently, when the young aristocrat saw how matters stood between capital and labour, it was enough for him that such was, and had always been, the condition of things."

State control of the professions, but it is maintained from other motives. Until this open competition of examining bodies is abolished the English school will suffer, and still more will the English child.

It would indeed appear as if the first step to be taken in any organising of secondary education is the abolition of these numerous examining bodies. There would appear to be no serious objection to the examination of the finished product of the secondary school by a National Board of Examiners, containing university and professional representatives. This examination should be the entrance examination to universities, professions, and the services. It would be undesirable for the universities alone to undertake this work of examining, for the university naturally judges a school by its efficiency as a preparatory school for the university, regardless of the fact that the vast majority of the pupils do not proceed to the university.

Moreover, the essential unity of secondary training must be recognised, and the independence of the school admitted. The secondary school is neither a professional nor a technical school. It is primarily neither a fitting school for the universities nor for the professions. It is not the business of this school to prepare for the professions, but for life.

Here it is that the pupil realises his share of the common heritage of national culture. Here he serves his novitiate for future intellectual leadership. It is in this school that the vast majority of cultured Englishmen first learn their privileges and their burdens; and these learned, no more must be demanded of the school. The secondary school is entitled to an independent life.

These examining bodies take no cognisance of the school life of the pupil, of which indeed they know nothing. The teacher is totally ignored. The teacher and examiner in England are natural enemies, not mutual helps as they should be.

The same variety of efficiency that was noticed in the case of the school is observable in the case of the teacher. There are practically no professionally trained teachers in the English secondary school. The cream of English secondary teachers are distinguished graduates of Oxford or Cambridge, who return after their university studies to the secondary school, and by natural aptitude, many experiments, a little pedagogic study, some recollection of their own teacher's methods, ultimately settle down to methods which, though

perhaps not based upon psychological principles, are practical and often successful.

Occasionally even the heaven-sent teacher finds his way into the public school, and the freedom from prescription and professional tradition leaves him at liberty to develop into a great teacher. For these we may be thankful—the good they do lives after them.

We owe a debt, too, to the system, or absence of system, which allows the growth of such master spirits. Is not too much ascribed to training? In England the effect of the little professional training received at the primary normal school is slight. What the trained primary teachers generally bring from the training college is a wider culture, a broader horizon. The effect of the slight professional training received is not always happy. In any case, it does not seriously modify their practice. Either their own conservatism or the environment in which they find themselves compels them to revert very largely to the methods of their pupil-teacher, pre-college days. The influence of the professional training of the college on the school practice is almost negligible. Hence the persistence of methods of teaching which teachers themselves are the first to admit are pernicious and mechanical. Methods are in vogue in the schools which have been denounced in the training college for a generation. In Germany, on the other hand, so comprehensive and thorough has the pedagogic training of the primary teacher been, that it has resulted in a remarkably high standard of teaching, but a singularly uniform one. There is no variety in German teachers; they are cast in the same mould. There is a lack of initiative, resource, and self-help, a lack of responsiveness to modern demands. Their professional training has produced a high professional spirit, it is true; but it has produced, too, a detachment from life. They are not of the people. Reforms will never come from within. The day of great reformers in the pedagogic world has gone: Froebel has left no successor. The majority of German teachers love neither Froebel nor Herbart—for they are not popular in the training colleges.

In our own land, too, where are the giants of English pedagogy found? Are they products of the normal schools? Liberty and freedom are the breath of life of the teacher and his school. Is it possible to train a teacher in a normal school without sacrificing his individuality? Perhaps, but that is for

the future to prove. Our own impression is that the method of training the secondary teacher of Germany is the plan that best preserves the individuality and liberty of the teacher.

In England probably some of the best teaching is being done in the secondary schools; so, too, is some of the worst.

After all, more important than any training, is a mastery of the subject and the teaching disposition—skill is silver, but sympathy is golden. The highest type of teaching is characterised by resource, enthusiasm, knowledge, and sympathy; and of these the training college can supply one only.

"Call me conservative," said Professor Münsterberg to a meeting of schoolmasters, "call me reactionary, call me ignorant, but I adhere to my belief, that the individual teacher, for his teaching methods, does not need any scientific psychology, and that tact and sympathy and interest are more important for him than all the twenty-seven psychological laboratories of this country." (*C.R.*, 1893-94, p. 438.)

We have already said something as to the qualifications of the English secondary teachers. Of the qualifications of the majority of the teachers of the poorer schools no general statement is possible. There is no other profession in England so burdened by charlatans as this. Even the head-masters of some of these schools are not ashamed to tack wilfully deceiving symbols to their names, which excite the awe of the ignorant and the scorn of the intelligent.

The salaries of secondary teachers vary from that of a respectable housemaid to that of a bishop or a premier. The average salary of assistant-masters in endowed schools is given as £150 per annum. From the pecuniary point of view, the plums of the profession (excepting, of course, the head-masterships) are the house-masterships; but it is not altogether a satisfactory state of things that, even in the public schools, a comfortable competence can only be obtained by combining the duties of lodging-house keeper with those of teacher. Although the schemes drawn up by the Charity Commissioners for endowed schools generally contain a clause empowering the granting of pensions to teachers, this clause is rarely put into force.¹

The status of English secondary teachers varies enormously, but generally speaking is distinctly lower than in France or

¹ At Eton and some other schools the old fellowship funds have been utilised for pensions.

Germany. The fact is that outside the best schools there is practically no profession of teaching, nor will there be until teachers are properly registered, organised, and professionally trained. At present, less emphasis is often paid to the academic than to the athletic qualifications of a candidate.

The insecurity of tenure, to which reference has been made, is a serious obstacle to the growth of a true professional spirit, and the fact must be recognised that at present the members of another profession monopolise the best posts in the English secondary school. These children of light in old days monopolised the pleasant places in the land. They have been diplomats, warriors, premiers, courtiers, preachers, and schoolmasters. But time has been unkind to them, and to-day they have left but the two last vocations. It would be better for the school were they content with the Church.

Finally, let us consider what these schools have done and can do for England. So great is the diversity, so varied the opportunities of the secondary school, that it is impossible, except in the most general terms, to summarise the work they are doing. Where freedom is so complete, there is room for the best and for the worst of schools.

This liberty is characteristic; the freedom of the English school is not seen elsewhere.

This school has placed character-building as its main aim, and for this purpose it has utilised to the full the national genius for free play. More stress is laid here on right living than on right thinking.

This is all to the good. But liberty such as this engenders licence. The intellectual side of the school training is too often mediocre in quality and meagre in quantity. This has necessarily affected adversely the growth of a full, rich character. The truth that discipline may and can only be complete through knowledge is not recognised. The practical tendency of the national character, always looking for results, has resulted in the present tyranny of examinations over the schools. While this school has avoided many of the evils of the French and German, it has serious evils of its own. Unfortunately, its critics forget that it has virtues too.

The public schools have held the true faith of education in a world of heresy. While the schoolmasters of other lands have been instructing, the public-school master has been educating. That the primary purpose of school training is the

development of character, and only secondly the development of intellectual power—that character is first and intellect second in the purposes of school training—it is this truth, and the holding fast to this truth, for which we have to thank our public schools.¹

Education is a growth from within—an unfolding of disposition, self-revelation.² It is a development of the power of right judgment, depending upon an intimate knowledge of the phenomena of life and nature. Like all power it is developed by use and extended by experience—by knowledge. The public school is a social organism—it is a world in miniature, just as the Lycée is a prison in miniature. Here this power of right judgment is developed by daily use, and extended by daily experience. In other schools more stress is laid upon the acquisition of knowledge than the development of right judgment, but in the best public schools character is the avowed aim. “Public schools, in which the aim was to form character faithfully, would return the children in due time to their parents, worth more than their weight in gold” (John Ruskin).

There is a limit to the amount of useful, *i.e.*, usable knowledge. Too much knowledge is worse than too little. An organism can easily be overtrained, both intellectually and physically. Nature revenges herself for excessive intellectual development by physical sterility. The future of a people is dependent more upon its intellectual idlers than upon its intellectual workers. The *savant* of one generation is succeeded by the fool of the next. There is a rotation of crops in the intellectual as in the agricultural world, and a period for recuperation is as indispensable in the one as in the other. The land must lie fallow in order to recover itself.

The future lies with the nation of animals, not with the nation of philosophers.

Not learning, but the power of learning, is the best gift of the school to the pupil. If the school has failed to kill the

¹ “The idolatry of knowledge must perish, or education cannot begin. Noble character—this is what our teachers must strive for in their pupils.” (Thring in Rawnsley’s *Life*.)

² “Education, briefly, is the leading human souls to what is best, and making what is best out of them; and that these two objects are always obtainable together, and by the same means; that the training which makes men *happiest in themselves* also makes them most serviceable to others.” (*Stones of Venice*, III., Appendix vii.)

love of learning in its pupil, that is good; if it has failed to make him intellectually conceited, that is better; if it has kindled a divine unrest in his soul, then that is best.

It has done its noblest task when, in place of intellectual satiety, it produces intellectual hunger.

"If the young Englishman knows but little when he leaves school, he at any rate has not lost the desire and the power of learning; he does not imagine, like the French Bachelier, that he knows everything; he knows not that mental exhaustion produced in the most ardent spirits by rushing through our over-weighted curricula..." (*Les Professions en Angleterre*, p. 249.)

Better than knowledge is power, and character than intellect. It is this truth, that education is not a process of developing intellectual skill, but that it is a growth in self-consciousness, in the power of right judgment, in character, that our public schoolmasters have grasped and held fast to. It is as easy to show the intellectual inferiority of these schools to other schools as it is to demonstrate their superiority as training fields for the battle of life.

If so much can be said of the work of these schools with their present hybrid, inadequate, and unsuitable curricula, what might England not hope for from such schools, were the curriculum a real one and in harmony with the environment?

This old-world curriculum, and the monastic atmosphere of the class-room, would, if not corrected by the life of the playing-fields and the beautiful home-life of the good "house," produce the social anachronisms that other schools are turning out. But, as we have indicated, it is fortunate that the intellectual training of the school leaves but transitory traces on the character. It is because the instruction is so meagre that the education is so good.

Were the intellectual side of the school work as keenly responsive to life's needs as is the physical training, these would be peerless schools. In time perhaps the schools will dethrone these old-world idols, and take to themselves the gods of to-day. Then will they be truly national schools, where the ideals will no longer be those of a social caste, but of a people, and where the intellectual aristocracy of England, drawn from the best, not necessarily the noblest blood, shall receive that training which is its right, and

which it is the blessed privilege of the community to provide for it.¹

When we review this heterogeneous collection of secondary schools, comprising schools unequalled for true training and also schools unequalled for utter inefficiency, the necessity of a robust faith in English common-sense is felt. That England can much longer tolerate this dissipation of energy, lack of organisation, and flourishing charlatanism, is impossible. The national need is organisation and redistribution of present resources, a conversion of many of the local pseudo-classical schools into efficient and modern day-schools, with a curriculum responsive to the needs of to-day and based upon philosophical principles.

The passage, too, from primary to higher education must be made possible. There is no educational ladder in democratic England. The elementary schoolboy who reaches the university gets there *via* the higher-grade school, polytechnic, or provincial college, not *via* the secondary school. The lack of this ladder is a dead loss to the community.

A country without this deliberately handicaps itself in the competition of peoples. It cuts off that portion of its territory which contains the greater part of the brain material in the rough. This supply of intellectual capacity is the only permanent national capital. England is surely not so rich that she can refuse to sift the ore from the matrix but reject both.

In comparing the intellectual attainments of different nationalities, it is important to remember that national aptitudes for knowledge vary enormously, and that these aptitudes have in some nations become actual habits. The German is by nature a student; he picks up knowledge as a chicken picks up seed.

¹ As M. Boutmy points out in his Introduction to M. Leclerc's book, *L'Education en Angleterre*, the true aim of education is not to fill the child's head with information on various topics, but it is to develop an aptitude for self-education—which education goes on throughout life. In France the former idea prevails, and every reform is directed to modernising and enriching the programmes. In England, on the other hand, despite incoherent and unsuitable curricula, the schools obtain extraordinary results. Young Englishmen are less cultured, less able to speak upon general questions than young Frenchmen, but as compensation for their ignorance they possess three qualities which are the result of their education. They have immense physical energy; they have great mental elasticity, and so are able to undertake heavy studies; finally, they have not been satiated, but still preserve a certain sprightly curiosity and intensity of purpose which surprises the observer.

His power of absorption is prodigious, and of assimilation equally great. He prowls about seeking knowledge like a dog for bones in a mixen. Nothing comes amiss to his capacious maw. In fact, the world is being seriously put to it to find food for this voracious animal. He is driven to seek for intellectual food in all sorts of odd corners of the universe. He turns up with all kinds of unusual morsels, curious tit-bits in his jaw.

How can one compare this people with another which has never taken kindly to books, has never been students, and has always been infinitely more interested in sport and play than in books? The English people have never been, and probably never will be, a nation of thinkers. They love knowledge, it is true, but more as amateurs than professionals. Their sphere is the world of action, and their forte the power of will, of character. Their ideal is the explorer, the warrior, or the statesman—not the philosopher or *littérateur*. And yet this people of action—who as a nation place character before intellect—has given the world philosophers and writers who have no peers. Is it not strange that Shakespeare, the supreme gift of England to the intellectual heritage of the universe, was himself but little learned—was indeed but a poor scholar—yet his works are the delight of that intellectual people the Germans? If the only knowledge really possessed by a people is that which has entered into the fibre of the common faith, then indeed to-day Shakespeare is German, and not English. They have the best of title-deeds, namely, possession.

Indeed, it is impossible to do more than appraise these national virtues and defects according to our prejudices. Even such statements as we have committed ourselves to above are extremely vague and general. Surely Germany has given to the world some of the greatest characters in history and England some of the greatest intellects. Where so rugged a character as Luther, or so massive an intellect as Newton?

It has often been pointed out that the ideal combination is character *and* intellect, and that the aim of our English schools should be the development of intellect. Unfortunately, these national idiosyncrasies are fairly persistent, and school life is unlikely to modify them seriously. Moreover, may not such a highly intellectual training be prejudicial to the best characteristics of the race? Is it not more reasonable to look

for development along those lines which bring out the special aptitude of the Saxon?

We must, I think, be content to go on lagging behind the Teuton in intellectual capacity, and trusting to our own special gifts, which have never yet played us false in the struggle.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER XII.

THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS OF WALES.

WHILE England thus awaits the touch of the magician's wand, her little neighbour Wales, with a freer hand perhaps, and certainly with a fuller faith, equips herself with an organised system of secondary schools. Wales is, in many ways, admirably suited as an experimental station for England, and the comparative success of the Welsh system has done more for English secondary education than all the propaganda of pedagogues and politicians. Before the Intermediate Education Act, Wales, with the exception of a few favoured spots, was destitute of efficient secondary schools.

The Committee of 1880 found that the number of boys who were in secondary schools was:—in endowed grammar schools, 1,540; in proprietary schools, 209; in private schools, 2,287; total, 4,036. Of the scholars in endowed schools, only one-third were taught any natural science, and about the same number were taught Greek. Of the private schools, it is doubtful how many, if any, were secondary schools at all.

The total endowment available for secondary schools for boys was in 1880 £12,788. For eight years afterwards, the friends of Welsh education urged incessantly the needs of the people, and in 1889 these efforts were crowned with success.

The County Council was selected as the local authority rather than the School Board, for two reasons—first, even in Wales, there are many areas that have no school boards; and second, the area covered by many of these boards is much too small for educational efficiency. The County Council acts through a committee constituted mainly of its own members. This committee is the county governing body, and its duties mainly relate to the financial administration of the schools.

As a result of this Act, which has now been in existence for twelve years, Wales to-day possesses 95 schools with 7,668 scholars, of whom 3,876 are boys, and 3,792 are girls. There has been a regular and continuous increase in these numbers annually. Thus the number of pupils was in—

		Boys.		Girls.
1894	...	300	...	193
1895	...	1,164	...	644
1896	...	1,913	...	1,484
1897	...	3,420	...	3,007
1900	...	3,799	...	3,646

Of the schools, 22 are for boys only, 22 for girls only, 44 are dual, and 7 mixed. The dual school is a school under one head teacher, but there are separate departments for boys and girls; however, co-education is arranged for, and largely utilised in such schools. In mixed schools the sexes are educated together. This Welsh system is unique. It is largely a system of rural secondary schools, and in America alone are there schools of a comparable character. After considerable discussion, the policy of bringing the school to the children rather than bringing the children to the school was deliberately adopted. Even as it is, the school district, which is the area from which the school is fed, is often very extensive, and were it not for the very liberal number of scholarships and bursaries annually awarded, it would be impossible for many of the children to attend school. The scholarships and bursaries have an aggregate value of £13,781. The schools are day-schools, but provision is made for boarders, and in 1901 there were 355.

The age of the scholars is gradually increasing. At present (1901) about 55 per cent. are between 12 and 15 years of age; 6 per cent. are under 12; 9 per cent. are over 17; and 30 per cent. are between 15 and 17. Over 75 per cent. of these pupils come from primary schools; and of the undergraduates of the Welsh universities, a very large proportion come from these secondary schools. The educational ladder is complete in Wales.

There are only nine of these schools at present not in permanent and modern premises. Eighty-six schools are in well-equipped and often beautiful buildings, and ere long the remaining nine will have also fallen into line. A sum of nearly £80,000 was

voluntarily subscribed by the Welsh people to the building of these schools, and this sum does not include gifts of sites, etc. The cost of each scholar's sitting has been over £20.

Most of these schools have laboratories for practical work and workshops for manual training, and all have large playgrounds, and sometimes playing-fields. These schools are supported largely by the Imperial Treasury, which altogether contributes annually about £47,000.¹ The local county rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. in the pound amounts to about £19,000; whilst from endowments the annual income is nearly £10,000. Thus an annual sum of over £75,000 is raised.

Tuition fees vary in different counties, from £2 up to £12 per annum. In no case do these fees cover the cost of education, and the result of the recent enormous increase of pupils is that the work of the schools is being seriously handicapped by lack of funds. Probably a further sum of quite £30,000 will be needed to ensure the permanent efficiency of the schools. Many of them, particularly in North Wales, are very small, and therefore expensive. There is an average of eighty pupils to each school, but many of them have between 25 and 50 pupils; for example, in Montgomeryshire there are on an average 44 pupils, and in Pembrokeshire 50 pupils in each school, whereas in Glamorganshire there are 119 pupils in each school.

The central authority for the examination and inspection of these schools is the Central Welsh Board, a federated body, made up as follows:—County Councils appoint 21, county governing bodies 26, head-masters and head-mistresses of county schools 5, teachers of public elementary schools 5, university bodies 14, principals of the university colleges 3, co-opted members 6; total 80.

This body meets twice annually in different towns, but the bulk of the work devolves upon the executive committee. How much of this body's work is administration, and how much inspection and examination, may be gathered from the following figures:—Average cost of examination per pupil enrolled, 8s. 3d.; average cost of inspection per pupil enrolled, 2s. 10d.; average cost of administration per pupil enrolled, 3s. 4d. This democratic Board of Education is an experiment. Such a system of administration undoubtedly develops a considerable amount of popular interest, but it may lend itself

¹ Namely, Local Taxation Act, £28,000; Treasury grant, £19,000 = £47,000.

more readily to the arts of the demagogue than to those of the pedagogue. The schools are inspected and also examined annually. This examination takes place in July, and is conducted by examiners appointed by the Board. The examination is written and oral. The lower classes are examined orally only. Thus in 1901, 3,656 pupils underwent a written examination, and 2,974 an oral only. This examination is confined to the work set forth in certain schedules. These schedules are annually despatched by the Central Board to the head teachers and local managers, who will accept them or submit an alternative scheme.

Although an endeavour is made to secure elasticity, economy compels a considerable uniformity in the work of the schools. The Board has also instituted an examination for certificates—junior, senior, and honours—and these are accepted as “equivalent values” by many other examining bodies. In 1901 there were 796 junior, 483 senior, and 162 honours certificates awarded. There is a considerable variety in the curriculum, but it is felt that there is room for development in this direction. In all these schools Scripture, Latin, French, mathematics, and English language and history are taught; in most of them, chemistry, geography, music, drill, and drawing find a place in the curriculum; and for girls, cookery, needlework, and domestic economy are usually taken, but, unfortunately, often at the expense of natural science. Greek is taught in one-fourth of the schools, and Welsh in about half; German is taught in a few schools, and Spanish in one. It has been felt that the obligation to teach Latin in all the schools is a heavy burden on some of the rural schools, and in Wales, as in America, the possibility of giving a secondary pupil a sound linguistic training, limited to the mother tongue, is being seriously considered. These schools have 73 head-masters and 22 head-mistresses, and all of these are graduates of universities, or have passed examinations of equal academic value. There are 180 assistant-masters, and 195 assistant-mistresses, and of these 55 per cent. are graduates of universities, and all of them have well-recognised academic diplomas. There is one teacher to every 16 pupils in these schools. The average salary of a head-master is £276, and of a head-mistress £232. The average salary of assistant-masters is nearly £125; of mistresses a little over £101. It is unwise to express an opinion on this system, which is as yet only some

six or seven years old. The present is not the time for extravagant eulogy, or sweeping criticism, but for suspended judgment. Let us trust that Welsh educators, as distinguished from Welsh *educationists*, will dare much, and that, casting aside the traditional reverence for examinations they have imbibed from their English neighbours, they will allow these schools to become true expressions of the national genius.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

In his book on *The Child and Childhood in Folk-thought*, Dr. Chamberlain quotes a description of the education of a boy and girl among the Dakota Indians:—"Under the care of the father and grandfather the boy learns to shoot, hunt, and fish, is told tales of war and daring exploits, and, 'when he is fifteen or sixteen, joins the first war party and comes back with an eagle feather in his head, if he is not killed and scalped by the enemy.' Among the amusements he indulges in are foot-races, horse-racing, ball-playing," etc. Another branch of his education is thus described: "In the long winter evenings, while the fire burns brightly in the centre of the lodge and the men are gathered in to smoke, he hears the folklore and legends of his people from the lips of the older men. He learns to sing the love-songs and the war-songs of the generations gone by. There is no new path for him to tread, but he follows in the old ways. He becomes a Dakota of the Dakota. His armour is consecrated by sacrifices, and offerings, and vows. He sacrifices and prays to the stone god, and learns to hold up the pipe to the so-called Great Spirit. He is killed and made alive again, and thus is initiated into the mysteries and promises of the mystery dance. He becomes a successful hunter and warrior, and what he does not know is not worth knowing for a Dakota. His education is finished!"

And of the education of a girl he tells us:—"She plays with her made-child or doll just as children in other lands do. Very soon she learns to take care of the baby, to watch over it in the lodge, or carry it on her back, while the mother is away for wood or dressing buffalo robes. Little girl as she is, she is sent to the brook or lake for water. She has her little work-bag with awl and sinew, and learns to make small moccasins as her mother makes large ones. Sometimes

she goes with her mother to the wood and brings home her little bundle of sticks. When the camp moves, she has her small pack as her mother carries the large one, and this pack is sure to grow larger as her years increase. When the corn is planting, the little girl has her part to perform. If she cannot use the hoe yet, she can at least gather off the old corn-stalks. Then the garden is to be watched while the God-given maize is growing. And when the harvesting comes the little girl is glad for the corn-roasting. And so her young life runs on. She learns bead-work and ornamenting with porcupine quills, embroidering with ribbons, painting, and all the arts of personal adornment which serve as attraction to the other sex."

This distinction between the education of boy and girl is found, not only amongst all primitive communities, but among the most highly civilised peoples of to-day. The difference is that the boy is educated for the active life of the community, while the girl is educated for the duties of the home and maternity. In Germany, and to a considerable extent in France and England, public opinion inclines to the belief that it is the duty of the State to educate its girls for home duties and for companionship with men. Educate the girls by all means, they argue, but the aim of this education must be a more intelligent and riper motherhood.

In America, and to some extent in other lands, however, it is held that women have a right to womanhood. Women are the equals, not the handmaids, of men. They have a social and legal right to a full development in their own way. Woman is different from, not inferior to, man.

There is no subject more full of pitfalls to the unwary—no subject so saturated with misunderstandings as this. We have, on the one hand, appeals to the maternal instincts of women. Women are told that the one end of womanhood is motherhood. Unfortunately, the social life of to-day permits barely half the women to justify this saying. What of the others? Besides, in what way does a more cultured womanhood mean the sacrifice of motherhood?

There is indeed no more beautiful picture than this of the mother and child. Motherhood is the noblest of priesthoods. Yet, though many be called, but few are chosen. Beside these "sacred duties" of motherhood, there are the equally "sacred duties" of fatherhood. Yet man does not allow

these latter to interfere with his mental growth. Men indeed preach the gospel of altruism and get their women to practise it.

On the other hand, we hear passionate rhodomontades on the so-called subjection of women. Yet a little thought will convince the impartial observer that in modern democratic States such as England or America, it is absurd to speak of the subjection of women. Of course women feel many social restraints—so do men—but that is due to the innate conservatism of all human societies, which is one of the main bulwarks of such societies. The fact is, that in modern civilised States, the great conservative force is woman, and if social or political rights are withheld from women, the power withholding them is woman, not man. Women's rights are not granted because the majority of women do not want them. Of course men—some men—like to be persuaded that they themselves are the villains of the piece, whereas they are in truth marionettes, whose movements are controlled by their womankind—we speak of the average here—not those heroes of real life who brook no interference with the stern freedom of their opinions. Woman—admittedly one of the finest of politicians, blessed with abundance of tact and common-sense—could obtain to-morrow whatever she desired.

"Woman may indeed be said," remarks Chamberlain, "to have nursed her children, domesticated animals, and tamed man with equal skill and wisdom. Even amid the wild emotion of the sexual congress she has ruled the physically stronger by her wit and her humanity. Some have unchivalrously added that, while busied with drawing man away from the ape and the brute, she has not altogether eliminated the tiger from herself, and that, in some respects, she has proved a better leader than exemplar. The conduct of women towards their own sex has often furnished weapons for such arguments."¹

This discussion of the education of women is invariably confined to the field of higher education. It is generally admitted that *all* children, boys and girls, must receive the modicum of education provided in the primary school, but contention arises directly the girl has obtained that and cries for more. It would seem to us that if primary

¹ Chamberlain, *The Child*, p. 463.

education is good, and indeed necessary for all girls and boys, some further education is necessary for some girls, as it is for some boys.

To argue such a point as this seems futile; it seems like arguing for the sphericity of the earth. Still such antiquated opinions are strongly held, and there are hundreds of people to-day who sincerely believe that the education of the masses was one of the greatest crimes of the nineteenth century. This higher education of women is absolutely essential to the safety and progress of the State.

It is true that education can never regenerate a race—it can never make good citizens out of gamins. The social salvation of the State is more dependent upon better houses, better food, better clothing, and better faiths than on any better system of education. The school is a conserving, not a reforming force. There we secure what we possess. There we receive our share of the national inheritance.

It is in the home that the momentous variations in character are produced. It is at the mother's knee that those characteristics develop which in the fulness of time may sway multitudes and shake empires. School, at least the good school, has a powerful influence on the formation of character, but that influence tends to be of an equalising nature: it modifies the more pronounced characteristics. School is unkind to individuality; hence the intense individuality of the character is not modified by a school training.¹

This influence of the good school is admirable from the social point of view, regrettable from the individual standpoint. However, it is generally admitted that genius develops at home, not in the school; and there is an unmistakable tendency apparent to-day amongst educators to facilitate the

¹ These characters often have extraordinary depth, but lack width. The school should create in its pupils a many-sided interest in life. The whole world should appeal to them, not patches of it. This is one of nature's compensations; the wide placid stream has a beautiful appearance often, but lacks depth and force—the Alpine torrent, rushing tumultuously from the glacier, excites wonder and admiration by its depth and impetuosity and force. So in life those great deep souls that have moved men onward, that have lifted us to the stars, how narrow and unsympathetic and bigoted they are! They are deep and narrow, impetuous and unsympathetic, strong and sometimes even ugly. We cannot do without them—but how much more beautiful would they be if their sympathies and interests were wider?

growth of individuality in the school. It is being recognised that, even from the communal point of view, this levelling influence is not economic. The two schools—home and school—must, it is recognised, work in harmony. How important, then, to the community is it that this other school—the more important school—the home, should be as efficient as possible!¹ The mothers of our future leaders—our future intellectual aristocracy—must, indeed, be as highly equipped for their task as possible. To them the State looks for its supply of national capital—for its supply of brain material.

"The history of the civilisation of our race," writes Zmigrodzki, "is, so to speak, *the history of the mother-influence*. Our ideas of morality, justice, order, all these are simply *mother-ideas*. The mother began our culture in that epoch in which, like the man, she was *autodidactic*. In the epoch of the Church Fathers, the highly educated mother saved our civilisation and gave it a new turn, and only the highly educated mother will save us out of the moral corruption of our age. Taken individually also, we can mark the ennobling, elevating influence which educated mothers have exercised over our great men. Let us strive as much as possible to have highly accomplished mothers, wives, friends, and then the wounds which we receive in the struggle for life will not bleed as they do now." (Quoted by Chamberlain, *The Child in Folk-Thought*, p. 50.)

It may happen that the education of the future fathers of the State may occasionally be neglected or allowed to drift into quaint channels, but to neglect for one moment the education of the future mothers of the State is to imperil the national existence. The best education alone is good enough for girls. There is more promise for the future in the better education of girls than in all the Acts of Parliament

¹ "But for the right care of children no training in the teacher or mothers is considered essential. One of the natural results is that the standard exacted among such persons is very low. With them the main test of whether a child is being properly fed is that he does not die; the test that he is properly clad is that he does not freeze; the test of whether he is properly taught is that he sit quietly in school and pass a sufficient number of examinations. As a matter of fact, it would doubtless be better in many cases he should die, or starve, or remain 'uninstructed.'" (Oppenheim, *The Development of the Child*, p. 84.)

of these last ten years. An abler, more cultured motherhood means a richer, nobler manhood. It means a fuller national life, a deeper religious faith.

“ Die Kindheit von heute
Ist die Menschheit von morgen,
Die Kindheit von heute
Ist die Menschheit von gestern.”

Granted that our girls must receive as thorough a training as our boys, we now come to the question, Should this education be of the same kind?

We have already stated our objections to the classical training generally obtaining in boys' schools, and those objections apply, we think, with greater force in the case of girls' schools; for the professions and universities press more heavily upon boys than upon girls.

The school for girls started without prejudice and with no traditions, and it is much to be regretted that the supporters of such schools in England had not sufficient self-confidence to let these schools live their own lives. They had, it was said, to prove to men that girls could do the same intellectual tasks, and had the same mental capacity as boys. Well, they have done that; let them now dare much and stand alone. Let our schools for girls now return the gift and show the other schools the possibilities of modern culture.

The tendency of modern education is, as we have said, to the growth of individuality; education, it is held, is a growth in self-consciousness—in character. This consists in the cultivation of the will and the judgment. The purpose of school training is to turn the inherent power of judgment into right judgment. But our soundness of judgment is dependent upon our knowledge of the phenomena of life. The phenomena entering into this judgment are of two kinds—those concerned with nature and those concerned with man. Therefore the truths of nature and man should form the basis of the school curriculum, whether primary or secondary. The purpose of school is a training for life, whether that be the somewhat meagre and circumscribed life of the primary scholar, or the fuller, richer, and wider life of the secondary scholar. The essential solidarity of all school training must be recognised. There is no essential and

basic difference between the curriculum of the primary and secondary school—the one is richer and wider than the other, that is all.

This basis of a modern curriculum should consist of, first, a scientific training, and, secondly, a humanistic training. The purpose of this training would be to make the world in which the girl lives, this world of to-day, intelligible to her, so that she may organise her experience, however gained, from books or teachers, and so that her power of right judgment, her character, may be developed. To build beautiful characters responsive to all the varied aspects of life is the aim of education. The women of England, of France, of Germany, and of America, must needs know the world they live in—they must understand and love that beautiful web of phenomena which nature has spun around them, and they must sympathise with, and try to understand, those human hearts which complete and round off their lives.

"Oh, ye women of England ! from the Princess of Wales to the simplest of you. . . . You cannot baptise your children lightly in those inch-deep fonts of yours, unless you baptise them also in the sweet waters which the great Lawgiver strikes forth for ever from the rocks of your native land—waters which a Pagan would have worshipped in their purity, and you only worship with pollution. You cannot lead your children to these narrow, axe-hewn church altars of yours, while the dark azure altars in heaven—the mountains that sustain your island throne—mountains on which a Pagan would have seen the powers of heaven rest in every wreathed cloud—remain for you without inscription; altars built, not to, but by an unknown God." (*Sesame and Lilies*, sec. 85.)

The work that these girls' schools are doing, valuable as it is, particularly for those scholars proceeding to the university, would be much increased in value by the adoption of a more modern curriculum—one more responsive to the needs of to-day.

Before proceeding to glance at the modern systems of girls' education, we must say something as to the vexed questions of the higher education of girls and the possible effects of this upon the future of the race, and of the co-education of the sexes. There can be no doubt that the vast preponderance of scientific opinion is in favour of the education of girls, and this opinion is confirmed by the results

obtained some years ago (1890), both in England¹ and America as to the effects of a college training upon the present and subsequent health of women. These investigations have conclusively shown that college-trained women are as healthy and as fertile as their sisters. The whole cry of sterility and physical degeneration is based upon imagination only. These results, in fact, emphasise what has already been said as to the absolute necessity of avoiding excessive intellectual tasks in the school, and the generally favourable character of these figures must undoubtedly be ascribed largely to the care taken in the best English and American institutions for women, to develop the physique by means of games, etc., and to the avoidance of intellectual over-pressure during school life. Here are the results:—

RESULTS OF THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN INVESTIGATIONS COMPARED.

PERCENTAGE IN EXCELLENT OR GOOD HEALTH

	American Students.	English.	
		Students.	Sisters.
<i>All Students and their Sisters—</i>			
Number of American Students ...	705		
" English Students ...	566		
" Sisters	450		
From 3 to 8 years of age ...	76.74	71.45	64.70
" 8 to 14 years of age ...	73.33	67.09	63.45
" 14 to 18 years of age ...	—	61.97	56.34
At entering College	78.16	68.20	—
During College Life, and for Sisters from 18 to 21	74.89	63.08	58.45
Present Health (English), since Graduation (American)	77.87	68.02	59.34
<i>American Students who studied severely (number 263), and English Students who read for Honours (number 269)—</i>			
At entering College	71.10	74.35	—
During College Life	69.58	67.66	—
Present Health	71.86	74.72	—

¹ Collected by Mrs. H. Sidgwick.

PERCENTAGE IN FAIR HEALTH.

	American Students.	English.	
		Students.	Sisters.
<i>All Students and their Sisters—</i>			
Number of American Students ...	705		
,, English Students ...	566		
,, Sisters	450		
From 3 to 8 years of age ...	1.84	16.98	14.45
,, 8 to 14 years of age ...	2.98	22.78	22.76
,, 14 to 18 years of age ...	—	27.14	26.95
At entering College ...	1.98	22.08	—
During College Life, and for Sisters from 18 to 21 ...	7.80	26.15	26.44
Present Health (English), since Gradua- tion (American) ...	5.11	22.08	27.11
<i>American Students who studied severely (number 263), and English Students who read for Honours (number 269)—</i>			
At entering College ...	3.04	17.47	—
During College Life ...	10.27	22.68	—
Present Health ...	9.13	18.96	—

PERCENTAGE IN INDIFFERENT OR POOR HEALTH, OR DEAD (ENGLISH).

	American Students.	English.	
		Students.	Sisters.
<i>All Students and their Sisters—</i>			
Number of American Students ...	705		
,, English Students ...	566		
,, Sisters	450		
From 3 to 8 years of age ...	21.42	11.57	20.85
,, 8 to 14 years of age ...	23.69	10.13	13.79
,, 14 to 18 years of age ...	—	10.89	16.71
At entering College ...	19.86	9.72	—
During College life, and for Sisters from 18 to 21 ...	17.31	10.77	15.11
Present Health (English), since Gradua- tion (American) ...	17.02	9.90	13.55
<i>American Students who studied severely (number 263), and English Students who read for Honours (number 269)—</i>			
At entering College ...	25.86	8.18	...
During College Life ...	20.15	9.56	...
Present Health ...	19.01	6.32	...

FINAL RESULTS.

	American Students.	English.	
		Students.	Sisters.
Average Age at entering College	18.35	21.9	—
Average Age at time of collect'g Statistics	28.58	28.57	29.55
Number Married	196	58	87
Percentage Married	27.8	10.25	19.33
Average Number of Years Married	6.7	4.31	18.83
Percentage of those Married who have Children	66.33	72.41	63.22
Number of Children living	232	80	177
Number of Children dead	31	9	31
Average Age of Children	6	3.9	7
Percentage who teach or have taught (in the case of Students, only teaching since leaving College is included; English Students who left in 1887 are here omitted)	50.21	77.46	37.33

(C.R., 1891-92, p. 843)

Of course the emotional nature of girls, their peculiar physiological functions, their ready susceptibility to fatigue, their periodicity of effort—all must be considered and provided for in drawing up a course of training for them. But all this only accentuates what every scientific man admits, that the education of girls must be carried out on lines somewhat different from that at present prescribed for boys. It must be different in method, not in purpose—that is all. The sexes are complementary, not supplementary. We believe that the question of over-pressure would disappear were co-education the rule. The presence of girls would compel more attention being given to the vital question of the effect of school life on the future physical stamina of the race. Let us glance at the scientific distinctions between the sexes.

"While there are broad general distinctions between the intellectual, and especially the emotional characteristics of males and females among the higher animals, these not unfrequently tend to become mingled. There is, however, no evidence that they might be gradually obliterated. . . . It is generally true that the males are more active, energetic, eager,

passionate, and variable ; the females more passive, conservative, sluggish, and stable. The males, or, to return to the terms of our thesis, the more katabolic organisms, are more variable, and therefore, as Brooks has emphasised, may have frequently been the leaders in evolutionary progress ; while the more anabolic females tend rather to preserve the constancy and integrity of the species. Yet along paths where the reproductive sacrifice was one of the determinants of progress, the females must have the credit of leading the way. The more active males, with a consequently wider range of experience, may have bigger brains and more intelligence ; but the females, especially as mothers, have indubitably a larger and more habitual share of the altruistic emotions. The males, being usually stronger, have greater independence and courage ; the females excel in constancy of affection and in sympathy. . . . That men should have greater cerebral variability and therefore more originality, while women have greater stability and therefore more 'common-sense,' are facts both consistent with the general theory of sex and verifiable in common experience. The woman, conserving the effects of past variations, has what may be called the greater integrating intelligence ; the man, introducing new variations, is stronger in differentiation. The feminine passivity is expressed in greater patience, more open-mindedness, greater appreciation of subtle details, and consequently what we call more rapid intuition. The masculine activity lends a greater power of maximum effort, of scientific insight, or cerebral experiment with impressions, and is associated with an unobservant or impatient disregard of minute details, but with a stronger grasp of generalities. Man thinks more ; woman feels more. He discovers more, but remembers less ; she is more receptive and less forgetful." (Geddes and Thomson, *The Evolution of Sex*, p. 289.) And in his work on *Man and Woman*, Mr. Havelock Ellis writes (p. 394) : "In the intellectual region men possess greater aptitudes for dealing with the more remote and abstract interests of life ; women have, at the least, as great an aptitude in dealing with the immediate practical interests of life."

The majority of German educators, like the majority of English educators, are undoubtedly advocates of the higher education of women, but the former also emphasise the necessity of differentiating the needs and abilities of the sexes. "That boys are to be educated to be men," writes Dr. Wact-

zoldt (*C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 468), "that girls are to be women, and hence that they must be educated differently—this self-evident principle seems to be forgotten in America. Already nature begins to avenge herself. The American woman is slowly degenerating in consequence of her emancipation. As she leaves the sphere of her home to enter the great market of life, she becomes less able and willing to fulfil natural duties. This is the opinion of distinguished physicians and clergymen. The woman question will in the near future assume a new aspect in the American commonwealth. It will then no longer be able to disregard the physical and mental difference in sex which nature and civilisation have created, and for the sake of the continuance of the State, which cannot be guaranteed for all time to come by vast supplies of immigrants from the Old World; the American education of women will have to obey the dictates of nature again." In parenthesis we may remark that the cause of the phenomenon noted by Dr. Waetzoldt is probably a social, not an educational, one. Further, one would like to examine the evidence upon which these sweeping assertions as to the degeneration of American women are based. The education of the school should be conditioned by the environment; but boys and girls are born into the same civilisations. It is not a difference of curriculum so much as a difference of treatment that is needed, a treatment that will respond to the physiological characteristics of the female organism.

The German Emperor, too, has placed his opinion on record; he believes that woman's vocation should be confined to "Kinder, Küche, und Kirche." It is as a more efficient helper, more cultured companion in life, an abler adviser in times of trouble to man, that the German and French writers regard the educated woman. They see her only as the helpmeet. There are many writers in England who are able to see in this work the full sphere of woman's activity, but few have been able to throw the idea into so beautiful a form as Mr. D'Arcy Thompson :—

"Do, Reader, disabuse your reasonable mind of unreasonable crochets. Women have just as keen intelligences as men—less powers, maybe, of abstract reasoning, but far finer perceptive and linguistic faculties. They need not be trained to exhaustive scholarship, but refinement of mental culture suits them perhaps even more than it does our sex."

"I imagine that the Lady Jane, who read her *Iphædo* when the horn was calling, had as pretty a mouse-face as ever you saw in a dream; and I

am sure that gentle girl was a better scholar than any lad of seventeen is now in any school of England or Scotland.

"And once upon a time, Reader—a long, long while ago—I knew a schoolmaster, and that schoolmaster had a wife. And she was young and fair, and learned, like that princess-pupil of old Ascham; fair and learned as Sydney's sister, Pembroke's mother. And her voice was ever soft, gentle, and low, Reader, an excellent thing in woman. And her fingers were quick at needlework, and nimble in all a housewife's cunning. And she could draw sweet music from the ivory board, and sweeter, stranger music from the dull life of her schoolmaster-husband. And she was slow of heart to understand mischief, but her feet ran swift to do good. And she was simple with the simplicity of girlhood, and wise with the wisdom that cometh only of the Lord—cometh only to the children of the kingdom. And her sweet young life was as a morning hymn, sung by child voices to rich organ music. Time shall throw his dart at Death, ere Death has slain such another.

"For she died, Reader, a long, long while ago. And I stood once by her grave, her green grave not far from dear Dunedin. Died, Reader; for all she was so fair, and young, and learned, and simple, and good. And I am told it made a great difference to that schoolmaster." (*Day Dreams of a Schoolmaster*, p. 122.)

For the higher education of girls and women there are three possible plans:—

1. In separate and distinct schools for girls.

This is the rule in Germany, France, and England.

2. In annexes to boys' schools, or as a sub-department of the school.

These *dual* schools consist of separate departments for boys and girls, but the whole is placed under one teacher, generally a master, and the staff is distributed, for economy's sake, over the two departments.

This system is adopted very largely in the Welsh intermediate schools.

3. In *mixed* schools, where the girls are taught side by side with the boys, and by either a male or female teacher, as the case may be.

This last alone is true co-education.

It has been tried recently in a few schools in England, but no opinion can as yet be formed of its effects.

It is largely adopted in Wales, and in America it is almost universal.

It was originally adopted for purely economic reasons, but it is maintained, so we are told, for pedagogic reasons.

If we include in our survey primary and secondary schools, we observe that in the United States co-education is practised

in all the public elementary schools, except in a few of the older cities, where the present school buildings are unsuitable, and which altogether total about 6 per cent. of the whole. In two-thirds of the private schools, too, co-education is the rule, and of the colleges and universities 65 per cent. are co-educational. In England, 65 per cent.; in Scotland, 97 per cent.; and in Ireland, 51 per cent. of the elementary schools are co-educational.

In England the secondary school is generally separate for the sexes, in Wales largely co-educational. In France co-education is tolerated only in the rural primary school. In the department of the Seine, in 1891-92, only .2 per cent. of the pupils were found in "mixed" schools. In French secondary schools there is no co-education.

In Germany, too, co-education is only tolerated, it is not popular. It is the only course possible for the rural school, however. In the towns, only three-tenths of the children are instructed in mixed classes.

There is no co-education in the secondary schools of Germany.

There is a very interesting set of diagrams showing the ratio of girls to boys in the schools of various countries, compiled by Dr. Klemm, and given in his Preface to Miss Lange's *Higher Education of Women in Europe*.

No subject, not even the great woman question itself, has given rise to more varied and serious discussion than this question of whether boys and girls may be allowed to sit side by side in the class-room, or whether it would not really be safer for State reasons that a brick wall should divide them.

We find European governments sending experts to America to investigate, not so much the National system of education there adopted, but this special and peculiar aspect of it—co-education.

Savants from France, philosophers from Germany, rush across the Atlantic to look at a boy and girl sitting side by side in a class-room in America, and to list their hands in amazement that as a consequence thereof nothing very portentous befalls—they simply remain boy and girl.

In England, too, we have learned writers describing in bated breath these "experiments" in co-education, and complacently congratulating themselves on their progressive ideas. These good folk need only cross the Severn to see the system in full

swing, but accompanied by but little discussion. The whole system, when at work, seems so ludicrously obvious that discussion dies.¹

There was enormous discussion in America until it was tried ; the system is now working and the discussion is dead. It is most important to remember that in this question of co-education is involved the bigger "woman" question, and that this latter question is of the highest significance to the modern civilised State. It is because our national ideals vary so greatly that what excites the apprehension of distinguished Frenchmen or Germans is apt to appear insignificant to democratic Englishmen or Americans.² The natural freedom of women, which appears obvious to some of us, is full of national peril to continental people. M. Lavasseur assures us that, even after a complete study, his doubts as to the wisdom of this policy are not altogether dispelled.

"The most important of the higher institutions of learning in New England," says Dr. Emil Hausknecht, "reject co-education in high schools and colleges, I think with good reason. In quite a number of States co-education is practised in all schools. Concerning the advantages and disadvantages of this mode of education, lengthy and heated controversies have been filling the columns of the press.

"As a makeshift, co-education is better than nothing. As a principle, it entirely ignores the needs of the separate sexes arising from the differences in the development of boys and girls. Boys and girls in the ages from fourteen to eighteen must be differently treated, both in regard to the intellectual and the emotional nature. Co-education is possible, however, in America more than in Germany or elsewhere, because custom and education have given to the girl and the woman

¹ See P. de Coubertin, *Notes sur l'Éducation publique*, p. 292.

² "Every nation and every era entertains an ideal of the women according to which it intends to educate the girls. This ideal may change, but it bears abiding national features. Poets sketch it, and in writings on woman's education it is reflected. In France this ideal consisted for a long time in the 'honnête femme,' in the sense of Molière; this gradually changed to the 'femme du monde,' meaning the word in an acceptable sense; finally, this ideal assumed the features of the 'citoyenne.' In England the type of the wife of a country gentleman or a clergyman—that is of the gentle lady, seems to have predominated. In Germany the ideal bears the dear features of a pious, good 'haus-frau,' which the shy, demure maiden is to take as her model." (Professor Waetzoldt, *C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 462.)

greater freedom and determination in their manners and appearance, and have also given them strong protection against encroachment and improprieties. Co-education is possible in America for two other reasons. The week has only five school-days, Saturday being a holiday, and the school-day has only five lessons, of which one is usually a study hour. Besides, grammar and high schools require much less severe intellectual effort and a much more concentrated and simple exertion of the mind than is required in our secondary schools for boys." (*C.R.*, 1892-93, p. 525.)

Mdlle. Marie Dugard, in her report to the French Government, asserts that co-education engenders competition between the sexes, which is having a deleterious effect on the fertility of American women. "There will soon be," she adds, "a race of women capable of being doctors, journalists, advocates, engineers—in one word, everything except wives and mothers." However, her general impression was favourable. Unfortunately two-thirds, or even three-fourths of the pupils in the higher classes are girls, and this preponderance, she fears, must have a bad effect on the boys. The fact, too, that so many of the teachers are young women must injuriously affect the character of the training of these boys. (See *C.R.*, 1891-92, p. 800.) Dr. Compayré's opinion was decidedly favourable. Roughness is the characteristic of some of the Boston schools where co-education is not practised. (*Ibid.*, p. 804.) Dr. Waetzoldt expresses no decided opinion, but emphasises the view that what is possible in American society may be very dangerous in other societies. Dr. Schlée of Altona, however, sees much that is good and suggestive in the system. "Germany," he says (like a good German), "takes in this respect perhaps the right medium between France and America, but if one observes how very beneficial in general is the comradeship of children of intimate families, one might, where the nature of the studies and where outer circumstances, especially in smaller places, make the union desirable, consider that the American way would be advantageous in our country also." (*C.R.*, 1891-92, p. 799.)

One may summarise the result of these various investigations by saying that, while approving of the system for America, they express grave misgivings as to the wisdom or practicability of its introduction into European schools. The possibility of this system seems to me to vary with climate and locality.

Children mature more rapidly in southern climates and certain localities than in others. The bald fact must be recognised that between the asexual or hermaphroditic period of childhood and that of the fully-sexed manhood and womanhood there is a period, long or short, when blood runs warm and hearts beat fast. It is then that a sane youth rightly looks to age for guidance and restraint. It is just this period of adjustment that needs frank teaching and skilful handling. This period needs no seclusion. To separate the one sex from the other increases the sexual tension. Let boy and girl look in each other's eyes frankly and truthfully, not slyly and surreptitiously. Once this frank look of sex on sex has occurred, there is no fear for the future.

In America, and to some extent in England, women have looked into men's eyes fearlessly and frankly, and a practical equality of living has been established.

The system of co-education appears valuable because it introduces into the school the conditions of life in democratic States. Men and women have to live side by side, jostling each other in the struggle of life, and it is well that each come to the struggle with no misunderstandings. Misunderstandings are the cause of all sorrow. What this means the figures of illegitimacy in France show. But in France, and to a less extent in Germany and England, women do not live in the same world as men; and, until the principle of equality of living and identity of environment between the sexes is recognised and practised, differentiation in training will be necessary. Until women have entered into the common life of the community, they will lack their share of the common heritage, and their training will be only a stunted imitation of that of men. The right of woman to womanhood is only partially recognised even to-day in Europe, and, until that is accepted, co-education is impossible.

Whenever co-education is tried, whether in the primary or secondary school, the evil effects, which certainly do sometimes appear, arise in connection with large urban schools, where the children are drawn from widely separated homes. Where children mingle out of school there seems little danger of their mingling in school.¹

¹ Dr. Harris, writing thirty years ago, stated the case for co-education. His arguments for co-education are—1. It is economical; 2. Discipline is improved; 3. Instruction is improved, a mean is obtained between the

Despite attacks by distinguished Americans, such as Dr. Clarke of Boston, and Dr. Philbrick, at one time superintendent of the Boston schools, the system of co-education is to-day firmly established in America. It is the settled policy of the vast majority of the American people, it is praised by nearly all educators, and has indeed become a part of the common creed. The right of women to a complete education is universally recognised in America. This, and the competition of commerce and business life, have left to women many of the fields of intellectual activity generally monopolised by men.

Not only are women monopolising the position of teacher in the more progressive communities, but the higher administrative offices of the profession are being filled by them.

Having now touched upon some of the problems in the education of girls, let us see what these various States are doing for the training of their women citizens. In the field of primary education girls and boys are educated much in the same way in these four countries, except that an endeavour is made to give the girls a certain technical training for their future vocation as housewives.

In England, girls are taught needlework from the ages of five to fourteen, and cookery from the age of ten (now twelve) upwards. No other country devotes anything like so much time or attention to these arts in the school. Moreover, cookery and needlework are not educative; they are not true forms of manual training—they are technical accomplishments, and as such have no place in the primary school curriculum. True manual training has an æsthetic basis—it produces a growth of mind, of intelligence, and leads to a symmetrical growth of hand and head—but can these two very useful arts be said to do that? The place for these arts is the primary technical school—*i.e.*, the evening continuation school.

The time devoted to needlework in the English school is out of proportion to its value, and there can be little doubt that the cookery hitherto taught to these little girls has been largely forgotten soon after they leave school. Of course some time might certainly, in girls' schools, be devoted

“masculinity” of the boys' school and the “semininity” of the girls' school; 4. The atmosphere in such a school is more natural; the intellectual development of both boy and girl is more sound and healthy. (*C.R.*, 1891-92, p. 806, a reprint.)

to needlework, as well as to other equally indispensable arts of housewifery; but the primary purpose of this school is to develop citizens, not dressmakers or cooks. In America and Germany, needlework is taught by a special teacher and as a special subject, and receives nothing like the same time and attention as it does in our schools. When it is remembered, too, that the English girl is generally not taught drawing—that, indeed, until recently she could not be taught drawing unless she were also taught cookery, one realises how curiously unscientific the education of girls is.

If there is one indispensable subject in school training, it is nature-study and a training in expression. Hitherto but little training in thought expression has been given in the English, French, or German primary school. Ornament and conventionalism should have no place in the drawing lessons of the primary school. The art of the scholar should be a training in expression—giving the pupil the power of self-revelation. This is the expression of consciousness. It is the freeing of the “imprisoned splendour” of the child. And this power must be applicable, not only to his environment, but to his memory and imagination. Whatever he may conceive, let him have the power to express. Drawing is a universal form of expression.

But we will leave the primary school, and devote our attention here to the secondary schools for girls in England, France, Germany, and America. These schools have already been dealt with to some extent, and here we shall content ourselves with noting some of their more important characteristics.

In Germany, the higher education of girls is provided for in the middle schools, public and private, which take up only one modern language, and the higher girls' schools, which take up two modern languages.

Recently a few higher schools for girls have been commenced with a classical curriculum. These girls' *gymnasien* are intended as fitting schools for the German university. They have not, so far, gained the success that was anticipated. Opposition to such schools is keen amongst German educators. “If we should insist,” says Dr. Hausknecht, “on expecting of our girls the same amount of work we now require of the boys, the girls would be physically ruined under the enormous burden of work; hence, the advocates of classical secondary

schools for girls will fail in their endeavours." (Quoted by Bolton, *Secondary School System of Germany*, p. 345)

The German middle schools have already been described. In them girls remain until they are about fifteen years of age. They may receive certain technical training, and they are also taught one foreign language and a science. (See p. 206 for curriculum.)

The German higher schools for girls cover a course of nine or ten years—viz., from the age of six to sixteen. The curriculum of such a school is illustrated by the following table :—

PROGRAMME OF STUDY IN LEIPZIG GIRLS' HIGHER SCHOOL.

—	X	IX	VIII	VII	VI	V	IV	III	II	I	Total.
Religion	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	24
German	8	8	8	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	54
French	—	—	—	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	32
English	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	4	4	15
History	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Geography	—	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	15
Natural Science	—	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	15
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	30
Writing	4	4	4	3	2	1	—	—	—	—	18
Drawing	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Singing	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	11
Gymnastics	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Needlework	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
	18	22	24	28	30	30	30	30	30	30	272

(Bolton, p. 286.)

The tuition fees of these girls' higher schools vary from £1 4s. to £6 per annum. The State does little financially for these schools. They are supported by the local communities, such as the city council. Thus of the total school income the items are :—

Tuition fees	70	per cent.
Endowments	2	"
Local taxes	27	"
State contribution	1	"

These German schools for the higher education of girls are in most respects admirable institutions. "Accomplishments" take up little of their energies. They give the girls a training admirably suited for the homes of the middle classes, and at the same time meet the needs of those girls who will have to earn their own living as clerks or teachers. The physical training is excellent, and the writer has nowhere seen the general deportment and carriage of the girls so highly cultivated as in these schools. The tone, too, is most pleasant. These schools have no privileges to offer their pupils, and so they are free from the regulations and examinations to which the boys' schools are subjected.¹ These schools are not examined at all—they are only inspected, and the result is that they are in all essential respects everything that the good school should be.

Of the teachers in these schools for girls :—

In the Public Schools ... 91 to 92 per cent. are men.

In the Private Schools ... 87 to 88 per cent. are women.

The total number of girls attending in 1891 was—

In the Public Schools	82,350
In the Private Schools	<hr/> 65,766
Total	148,116

(See Bolton, p. 299.)

It should be noted that although these girls' schools receive little assistance from the State, they are, like all other schools, subject to State control and inspection, but this control is light as no privileges are involved.

Of this German education for girls must be noticed its comprehensiveness. Although there are not nearly so many women in Germany receiving an education similar to that given at Girton or Brynmawr, yet there are proportionally many more girls receiving an excellent secondary training, thorough and modern, in Germany than in England or America. This plan of providing a sound education, guaranteed as to quality and quantity by the State, for the many, rather than the highly specialised and classical

¹ The Emperor does not look for soldiers here, so his myrmidons leave the school for girls largely alone.

training for the few, has been deliberately adopted by German educators, and it is difficult to think they are wrong.

"Let us not forget," says Professor Waetzoldt, himself an ardent advocate for the education of girls, "that the most pressing necessity is not found in universities for women, nor in the participation of women in the scientific labour of the times, nor in the opening of higher professions for women, but in the care and extensive education of the millions of girls, indeed, for the education of the mothers of the coming generation. The graceful structures of a higher education and the capstone of the edifice will remain insecure until they can rest upon the broad and secure foundation of a general education of the people. A State which neglects this, and promotes higher education exclusively, works for show, and neglects the general weal of the people, while it may satisfy the desires and claims of a noisy minority. Let us not forget that more important than the results of intellectual education, which are easily recognised and estimated, are the ethical effects of education which are taken into life, and manifest themselves as determination of the will, a quality which is not easily estimated, because not visible to the eye." (*C.R.*, 1894-95, p. 461.)

In some respects the secondary schools for girls in Germany are superior to those for boys: the curriculum is more responsive to modern needs; the tyranny of the past over the present does not exist in them.

Over-pressure, too, has been guarded against (the home lessons must not be more than two hours daily, even in the top classes), and the general atmosphere of these schools is distinctly pleasanter than that of boys' schools. These schools have not been so hampered by official regulations, and so have developed more spontaneously and naturally than other schools in Germany.

In France, where, says Bréal, "La plupart des épouses ne vivent point de la même vie intellectuelle que leurs maris," the first Lycée for girls was opened at Rouen in the eighties (1881). This school cost £40,000 to build; another cost £80,000. The number of girls in these public Lycées is 11,994 (1899). These schools differ in no essential respect from those for boys, excepting that Greek and Latin are not taught, and that domestic economy and needlework are included in the curriculum. The legal equality of the French

Republic was extended to the sexes : women were allowed the same educational facilities as men.¹

The girls attending these schools are between seven and seventeen years of age, and the teachers are of both sexes. The female teachers, however, largely predominate. These schools are as closely organised and supervised by the State officials as are the boys' schools. The programmes of study are as minute, and the details of organisation are as clearly defined. The same logical construction is observable, and the same evil effects of a routine system upon character are evident. These schools have never been popular outside the great cities. The French Government, in its treatment of the "woman" question, was logical but not wise. Assuming the perfect equality of the sexes, it proceeded to deal with them as identical.

"To the women-teachers," remarks Professor Waetzoldt, "were opened the same institutions for professional preparation that were open to men : under presuppositions of equality, the women were admitted to the State examinations ; the admission of women to university studies was facilitated ; higher normal schools for women-teachers intending to teach in secondary schools were established. In the same measure, however, in which women's education in France entered the arena of public education, the girls found themselves exposed unsparingly to the customary contention caused by ambition for prizes, diplomas, scholarships, etc. Competition and rivalry in examinations increased. The human being who is that by the grace of examinations only, is now being bred and trained in girls' schools of France also ; the external success has become an essential motive, and the easily teachable mediocrity wins the victory."

The vast majority of French girls, however, are taught in conventional schools. These schools, even to-day, show in an exaggerated degree the evils of the cloistral system. The curriculum is meagre and narrow. It is of such schools that Fouillée is probably thinking when he writes : "The education of girls is like their holiday tours, in which they see the sea, climb mountains, and venture to the edge of a precipice or on a glacier, but always on the express condition of being accompanied and guided, step by step ; whereas, in the

¹ The leaving examination is the equivalent of the *Baccalauréat*, and for the teachers of these schools there are examinations equivalent to the *Licencié* and *Agriégé*, and a training college at Sèvres.

case of their brothers at the Lycées, even their mothers send them alone to discover the Mediterranean" (*Education from a National Standpoint*, p. 172.) There can be little hesitation in ascribing to this early separation of the sexes in France, and in Latin countries generally, much of the pruriency and eroticism that is characteristic of contemporary France.¹ There is no more immoral system in the world than this separation of the two sexes, and its results on the national character are disastrous in the extreme. The unhealthy tone engendered by this clostral life is corrected in England by the school games and the family life of the "house," but in France no such corrective is applied. Over and over again have distinguished Frenchmen pointed out the evil effects of this lack of unity in the education of men and women. There are two worlds in France—one in which men live, and one in which women live. Jules Simon wrote: "Communities have established schools for the children, asylums for the old, but they have forgotten one thing—the hearth for the family. They have considered all the necessities of the body, but the heart they have forgotten. Perhaps the school, the much-divided

¹ "My observations had led me to endorse the statement of Richter: 'To ensure modesty I would advise the education of the sexes together; for two boys will preserve twelve girls, or two girls twelve boys, innocent, amidst winks, jokes, and improprieties, merely by that instinctive sense which is the forerunner of natural modesty. But I will guarantee nothing in a school where girls are alone together, and still less when boys are.' I had noticed that the atmosphere of 'mixed' schools was desexualised, where that of separate schools seemed to have a tendency to develop sexual tension. Again, whatever tendency toward indecency might manifest itself was far more easily checked in 'mixed' schools by reason of the cross-fire of watchfulness, which made intrigue far more difficult to keep secret. The brothers and sisters and other relatives and intimate acquaintances of the pupil attended the same school, and every act was scanned from two points of view—the boys being participant in boys' gossip, and the girls being participant in girls' gossip, and the barriers being removed within the precincts of the family, parents could not fail to have a more faithful account of the behaviour of their children than when isolated in different schools. Brothers and sisters mutually protect each other from shame. Besides this, the fact that the chief association between the sexes in 'mixed' schools takes place under the eye of the teacher, and in recitation, wherein the contest is purely intellectual, and where the manifestation of mere femininity—softness and sentimentalism—would cause the pupil to lose rank as a scholar, and where mere masculinity—roughness and wilfulness—would make an unattractive spectacle, leads one to expect that the tendency of co-education is to elevate the standard of admiration from mere external charms of person to the spiritual graces and gifts which lie deep in the character."—W. T. HARRIS.

primary school, has trespassed against 'the hearth of the home.' When we look round in our family circle, we can hardly keep off the thought that, every time we divide the primary school, we cut out a piece from the life and conscience of the nation."

Of the secondary education of girls in America we have already spoken in the chapters on the American systems. There are, it is true, a few towns, like Boston and New York, where separate schools for the sexes are maintained, but these are in no essential sense characteristic or peculiar. The opinion of a distinguished German educator on the value of this American education for girls, as compared with that given in the German school, is interesting. He says in his school report:—"In no field of education have the Americans done such prominent pioneer work as in the education of girls and women, and of nothing are they prouder; indeed, in this respect they entertain the idea that they have left even us Germans far behind, though generally our system of education appears to them very good. But they overlook one thing—namely, that the education offered in our secondary schools for girls has a breadth, depth, thoroughness, and excellence which makes it nearly equal to an American college education, by which it may be surpassed in specialisation, but certainly not in breadth and thoroughness of the knowledge it imparts. . . . Besides, life with us offers much more intellectual enjoyment than in America, where nothing is finished, where culture is often quite immature, and where culture and barbarism are frequently found side by side."¹

¹ This severe judgment of American society is supported by other observers, e.g.:—

Renan said, "The United States has created considerable popular instruction without any serious higher instruction, and will long have to expiate this fault by its intellectual mediocrity, its vulgarity of manners, its superficial spirit, its lack of general intelligence."

And J. R. Lowell said, "Americans are the most common-schooled and the least-cultivated people in the world."

Professor Waetzoldt: "America possesses proportionally few highly educated persons."

Emerson asserted, "It is a wild democracy, the riot of mediocrities, and dishonesties, and fudges."

Americans may be thankful that they have never needed mentors. Both England and America have never suffered from a dearth of writers who make it their duty to enlighten the populace on their ignorance. It is the mark of a public man to demonstrate his foreign experience by criticising home institutions.

"These intellectual enjoyments, so easily accessible in Germany but rarely offered in America, aid essentially in the education of our women. Another consideration is that our women are benefited—not only the upper, but also the middle classes—by the incomparably better-developed elementary education, and especially by the higher education of the men, so generally found in Germany in all classes of society. Lastly, we must not forget that with us the percentage of girls attending secondary schools is a considerable fraction of the whole female population of the country, and reaches far down into the lower strata of the middle classes. On the other hand, the percentage of American girls attending the high school, which cannot be compared with our secondary school for girls, is a very small fraction of the whole female population of the country." (*Professor Hausknecht; C.R., 1892-93, p. 531.*)

There is a good deal in this that challenges criticism, as, for example, the statement that the number of girls in America receiving a secondary education is only "a very small fraction of the whole." However, this criticism illustrates the satisfaction with which a German regards his own school when compared with another school. On the other hand, America is suffering intellectually from her admiration of the almighty dollar. This has diverted her children, especially her sons, from the higher spheres of life and of duty. The intellectual heritage of the American people is passing into the hands of the women. Some may say, "so much the better." Alas! no; nothing is to the better that enriches one sex at the expense of the other.

"We have to learn," said Bishop Spalding, of Peoria, "that what makes a millionaire spoils a man; that a people who think trade and commerce the one thing needful have no permanent place in history, because they have no influence on the spiritual, which is the real life of man." (*C.R., 1898-99, p. 622.*)

It is righteousness that exalteth a people. America may, as she promises to do, control the markets of the world, but she will never rule the minds of men; her ships may be on all seas, but her thoughts will never wander far from home. She may pile up her silver and her gold as it was never piled up before, but she will not accumulate the poems, the paintings, and the ideas that the world loves and admires.

Of the secondary education for girls in England there is little to be said. With the exception of a few endowed schools, it is entirely in private hands. Seventy per cent. of the girls are taught in private schools. There is no system of cheap and efficient secondary schools for girls in England as there is in Germany. The system of girls' high schools meets the needs of the upper middle class. These are mainly first-grade secondary schools.

We have, too, an efficient system of third-grade secondary schools for girls in our higher elementary schools, but between these two there is a blank. One may go further and say that between the two there is a great gulf fixed. There is no educational ladder for English girls as there is for American girls.

There is, in fact, no efficient system of schools in England for the boys and girls of that enormous class of society which is too poor to patronise the public school or the high school, but could afford something more than the higher elementary school.

As the high school admittedly occupies the first place, and forms the pattern of all other girls' schools in England, it is necessary to add something to what has already been said of this type of school. The Girls' Public Day School Company, which commenced in 1872, has at present 36 schools, with 7,111 scholars; whilst the Church Day School Company has 27 schools, with 2,166 pupils. The Public Day schools are of an average size of about 200 pupils. The fees are distinctly high, and within the compass of only the better-placed of the middle class. They are: for pupils under ten, 10 guineas; between ten and thirteen they amount to £13 10s.; and for those entering after thirteen they amount to £16 10s.

Many of these schools have a kindergarten class attached for the younger children, and attended by both boys and girls. The ages of the scholars consequently vary from seven to nineteen years of age. The curricula of these schools vary considerably, but "the following time-tables are examples of the actual work of an upper school form in two different high schools. Fifth-form time-tables have been selected, because in the sixth form there is always so much specialisation. It should perhaps be observed that, in languages and mathematics, all, or almost all the work in the upper school is taken in sets or divisions":—

—	Number of Lessons.	Time.	—	Number of Lessons.	Time.
Religious Instruction ...	2	H. M. I 25	Religious Instruction ...	2	H. M. I 20
Arithmetic ...	2	I 25	Arithmetic or Trigonometry in sets ...	2	I 20
French... ...	3	2 10	French ...	4	2 40
German or Latin ...	3	2 10	German or Latin ...	4	2 40
Euclid ...	2	I 25	Euclid or Mechanics in sets ...	2	I 20
Algebra ...	2	I 25	Algebra ...	2	I 20
English Language or extra Latin ..	1	0 45	English Literature	2	I 20
English Literature	1	0 45	English History ...	2	I 20
English History ...	2	I 25	Science ...	2	I 30
Science ...	2	I 20	Geography or Grammar ...	1	0 40
Geography ...	1	0 45	Singing ...	1	I 0
Drawing ...	1	I 20	Physical Exercises ...	4	I 0
Singing ...	1	0 40			
Drill, one or two	—	0 30			
		17 30			17 30

Some extra lessons in the afternoon.

Drawing, Painting, and Gymnastics in the afternoon.

(Barnett, *Teaching and Organisation*, p. 409.)

These schools have, as a rule, four hours' class-room instruction daily, between 9 or 9.30 A.M. and 1 or 1.30 P.M., with an interval of about a quarter of an hour. The afternoon is devoted to special subjects, such as gymnastics, music, and painting, or else to games, walks, etc. Very real emphasis is laid in these schools upon sound physical education.¹ The

¹ "A recently published work by Pinloche, a French writer, relating to Basedow and philanthropy, furnishes a retrospective view of the school affairs of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries which is anything but inspiring. Only think, in a regulation of a Gymnasium in Eisenach, 1676, we read: 'The boys are forbidden to bathe and wash in cold water, because it is a very dangerous thing to do. They shall refrain from skating on the ice, from snowballing, from ball games.' Paragraphs upon paragraphs follow beginning with the significant words of that time,

girls are taught to respect their bodies as much as their brains. They suffer neither from the intellectual over-training of the German Gymnasium nor the under-training of the public school.

The regular teachers of these schools are all women, most of them possessing university degrees or their equivalents, and some of them also have passed through a special course of professional training. They are well paid, and are entitled to the benefits of a superannuation scheme now at work.

The work done in these high schools will undoubtedly compare favourably with that of any other type of secondary schools in England. They are turning out into the intellectual life of England women fully fitted to take a place therein with the best of England's manhood. In place of the superficiality, the showiness, and emptiness of women's training thirty years ago, these schools supply a culture, thorough, sound, and comprehensive; and with this there is little of the pedantry associated with the bluestocking.

These, like all other secondary schools, are suffering from a plethora of examinations, and one of the first reforms necessary is diminishing the number of, and consolidating, these. It is indeed bad enough to see our boys made the victims of this craze—it is much worse to see our girls.

"Characteristically English," said Professor Waetzoldt, "is the exclusive direction of girls' education upon a practical aim, obtainable by an examination. To express it in brief, there is a desire for an education according to pattern and stamp. It is not the free development of an intellectual personality, but of the final performances in examination, to which the work of long years is directed. From the smallest local examination to the much-dreaded tripos at Cambridge, there is spanned across the globe a net of English examinations. No one intending to reach the end can escape its meshes. It is expected and demanded of every pupil and of every student that his or her work be a preparation for an examination in view. We there-

'astineant,' 'fugient,' etc. These paragraphs have long since been struck out of the school regulations for boys, but they were retained for girls in Scandinavia until late in our century; and as antediluvian as it may appear to many, nevertheless it is certain that education in school and house still utters in many instances to the weaker sex Hamlet's words to Ophelia, 'Frailty, thy name is woman!' " (P. Voss; *C.R.*, 1888-89, p. 466.)

sore find, in place of general humane education, a specialisation which begins too early; instead of the free, unhindered work of the teacher, a laborious drudgery in mastering a certain amount of prescribed knowledge—prescribed, of course, by an examination."

These schools have, I believe, revolutionised English thought and English life. The intellectual equality of the sexes has expelled vulgarity and lewdness from life, and it has brought a new instrument to bear upon the problems of to-day. The growth of altruism in modern society synchronises with the intellectual freedom of women. The moral fabric of society is based upon a sounder core, and there are currents of sweet wind blowing through the avenues of life that were undreamed of in our fathers' days.

"You bring up your girls," said Ruskin, "as if they were meant for sideboard ornaments, and then complain of their frivolity. Appeal to the grand instincts of virtue in them; teach them that courage and truth are the pillars of their being. Do you think that they would not answer that appeal, brave and true as they are even now, when you know that there is hardly a girls' school in this Christian kingdom where the children's courage or sincerity would be thought of half so much importance as their way of coming in at a door; and when the whole system of society, as respects the mode of establishing them in life, is one rotten plague of cowardice and imposture—cowardice, in not daring to let them live or love except as their neighbours choose; and imposture, in bringing, for the purposes of our own pride, the full glow of the world's worst vanity upon a girl's eyes, at the very period when the whole happiness of her future existence depends upon her remaining undazzled?" (*Sesame and Lilies*, sec. 80.)

We believe that these schools can and will do more for England, but only when they assert their own individuality. They should have a curriculum peculiar and appropriate to themselves, not one that is an imitation of that of boys' schools. Their work, their noblest aim in the field of culture, is to turn out good strong women, worthy mothers and sisters of new England. Each sex has to work out its own salvation in its own peculiar way.

As we look back over the ages and watch these two beings, man and woman, toilfully treading the path of life, and by constant work purifying themselves, we see how one idea or belief and

then another leads to the alternate supremacy of the one being or the other. If the age has force as its ideal, then man is supreme; if resignation, then is the woman supreme. War and peace—man and woman. The militant empire of Rome, with man as supreme, is succeeded by the Christian empire of Rome, with the woman as supreme.

In primitive times, and amid primitive peoples, man is the hunter and protector of the home, but woman is the centre. In her hands are all the arts and sciences of the community. Thence onward her special care has been the home. Whilst man has been freeing himself by capturing and yoking nature, woman had still the same arduous and diversified tasks as of old. But to-day there are signs of changes of immense significance. The supremacy of men hitherto has depended upon their greater physical strength, their power of persistency. Women, it is admitted, have greater power of adaptability—more variability—they are more responsive to changed conditions than men; but man has conquered because he was the stronger animal of the two. Supposing, however, it should happen that he cannot avail himself of his greater strength, what then?

The introduction of the machine in place of the man seems to promise such a revolution. In place of the skilled mechanic, who has, by many years' practice, perfected himself in his work, the inventor brings into play the machine, which, under the control of the trained intelligence, will perform the task cheaper and quicker. It is not the skilled hand but the trained, versatile intelligence that the world needs to-day. The day of toil, and labour, and drudgery is passing away, and will be succeeded by the day in which directive power alone will be of use. We see around us daily examples of men who have been supplanted in their work by the machine—vessels left in life's backwaters.

A few years ago the company controlling one of the largest steel-works in South Wales had an American mill fitted up for rolling steel rails. The number of men employed in the old mill was probably a dozen, and all were necessarily strong, powerful, and specially trained. The new mill required fewer men to work it, and under these conditions turned out many more rails per hour than the old mill. The men who worked the new mill were not necessarily strong men—in fact women could have worked it—but they were men of a higher

intelligence, and were of course paid a higher wage than were their predecessors.

The type of being that will be needed in the future will be those skilled, versatile minds, prepared to take up this or that duty, not because it has received a special training for that, but because its whole training has led to versatility and resourcefulness. Women's duties in the home have bred in them this versatility and resource, until it has become in the majority of them a veritable instinct.

Men may cry out against this invasion of women, but it is only the weak ones that will go to the wall; in any case, the highest interests of the race demand that the tasks of life, whatever they be, shall be done by those organisms best fitted for them. It is rank economic heresy to assert that the caprice of nature shall limit the national supply of directive power. On the contrary, this supply of national capital must be utilised, whether it come as boy or girl, pauper or peer.

The woman is nearer the genius than the man, and the child than both; and of men, the modern urban adult is more womanly than his country cousin. Evolution promises to make of man a woman, and of woman a child. It is the glad cry of the child on the mother's shoulders, as it stretches its hands to the light, that rings down the centuries.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.

THE visitor to some of our rural schools will not rarely notice a child sitting alone, often considerably older than the other children. This child is the Ishmaelite of the school. The ability of such defective children varies from that of mere stupidity to pure idiocy. They are sent to school with a vague hope that there some spark of intelligence may be kindled; but, alas! too often their failure to keep up with the others serves only to add a vague resentment to stupidity. They leave school ultimately, and become a charge to their friends or the community.

Yet under proper treatment even idiots are able to become intelligent and useful members of the community. "Idiots," wrote the great pioneer of this work, Dr. Seguin, "have been improved, educated, and even cured; not one in a thousand has been entirely refractory to treatment, not one in a hundred who has not been made more happy and healthy; more than 30 per cent. have been taught to conform to moral and social law, and rendered capable of order, of good feeling, and of working like the third of a man; more than 40 per cent. have become capable of the ordinary transactions of life under friendly control, of understanding moral and social abstractions, of working like two-thirds of a man; and 25 to 30 per cent. have come nearer and nearer the standard of manhood, till some of them will defy the scrutiny of good judges when compared with ordinary young men and women." (Quoted by Oppenheim, *The Development of the Child*, p. 219.)

The number of defective or weak-minded children in the modern State is difficult to ascertain, but a French writer, Dr. Gommès, in a recent article in the *Revue pédagogique*, gives it as from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 per cent. of the number of normal children, which is also the proportion adopted in the English statistics. Higher figures have been

obtained; thus an American writer estimates this number at 10 per cent., and in the canton of Zürich recent statistics place the number at 3 to 4 per cent. Of the children under thirteen who were treated in a Brussels hospital, 2 per cent. were found to be defective. In Switzerland, where the number of defectives is rather high, owing largely to the physical contour of the country, the number of defective children between six and eleven years of age has been shown by a recent official census to be as high as 2.8 per cent. of the total number of children attending primary schools. Of these 13,155 defective children—

- 39 per cent. were slightly weak-minded;
- 20 " were highly weak-minded;
- 14 " were weak-minded owing to physical defects;
- 18 " were deaf, blind, or idiots;
- 9 " were morally depraved or neglected.

Of these children, 7,667 are classified as capable of receiving school instruction—*i.e.*, 16½ of every 1000 children; and these children are cared for thus:—

- 567 are instructed in special class-rooms;
- 411 are in asylums for weak-minded children;
- 104 are in orphan asylums;
- 5,585 at present attend day schools, but they should receive special training;
- 534 are in ordinary schools, and are not so defective as to necessitate special training;
- 466 of whom nothing is known.

(*C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. 856.)

Official statistics of defective children are hardly likely to be complete; it is only the poorer classes whose children will be included.

There are two types of school for defective children of weak intellect in Germany: 1, the *Hilfsschule*, which is a fully-organised school specially set apart for the use of these children; and 2, the *Nebenklasse*, which is simply a special class for defectives attached to the ordinary school.¹

In all large towns except Berlin, which deliberately adheres to the *Nebenklasse*, the *Hilfsschule* is the rule. Sometimes, as

¹ There are in Germany 98 day-schools, with 326 classes and 7,013 pupils. (*Special Reports*, vol. ix. p. 597.)

at Leipzig, there are, besides the Hilfsschule in the centre of the city, several Nebenklassen in the suburbs. In the smaller towns the Nebenklasse is the rule.

At Frankfurt the Hilfsschule is divided into six classes of about twenty pupils each. The classes here are "mixed"—that is, boys and girls are taught together; in Cologne, however, they are taught separately. The children attending these schools are between eight and fourteen years of age. These special classes and schools are supported by the municipality, except at Berlin, where they are in private hands.

In England, by a recent Act of Parliament, powers were given to School Boards to provide, when they wish, special accommodation and instruction for defective children. Indeed, the School Board of London has, for many years, endeavoured to do something for these children, but it was in 1892 that the first two schools were opened for them. There are at the present time 53 centres in London, with 2,154 children enrolled, and taught by 119 qualified teachers. The maximum size of the classes is twenty.¹

Many of the more progressive and wealthier School Boards have likewise provided instruction for the defective child in special centres. These centres are generally attached to an elementary school.

It has been asserted that because America is a young country, therefore the proportionate number of defectives is less than in the old countries of Europe. This optimism is not justified by the figures:—"The United States census for 1890 gives in round numbers 95,000 feeble-minded, and this number is

¹ In the *Report of the Board of Education for 1900-1901* it is stated that "the Act has already been adopted and satisfactory arrangements for the examination of defective children have been submitted for approval by the School Boards for London, for 21 county boroughs, for three municipal boroughs, and for four parishes, as well as by one borough council acting through an educational committee. These represent about two-fifths of the population of England and Wales. It is expected that the experience of the first year's working of the Act and Minute will induce other school authorities, at least in the large centres of population, to make a similar provision for defective children within their areas. Under the first part of the Minute of 26th February 1900, which provides for special grants to public elementary schools, or classes attached to such schools, for defective children, 87 certificates have now been issued. Of these 53 are to schools maintained by the School Board of London; the remainder are distributed amongst 16 other School Boards. The total number of defective children for whom accommodation is thus provided is 3,751."

undoubtedly short of the actual number. Still but one-twelfth, or about 8000 of those returned in the census, are cared for in special institutions. Here is a terrible problem ahead for the sociologists to work out. Those who have most thoroughly studied the feeble-minded are convinced that, as prevention is cheaper than cure, so the gathering of all this vast army into institutions, and especially colonies, where 50 per cent. of them can be taught to be at least partly self-supporting, and where their multiplication can be cut off, is, by all odds, the most economical and the best policy for the States to pursue in the future." (Allen, "Education of Defectives," *A.E.*, p. 810.)

As a result of the abolition of corporal punishment, and the enforcement of the law of compulsory attendance, a considerable number of children were found in the ordinary schools who were not amenable to the discipline of the class. A considerable number of incorrigible children, as well as a certain proportion of children requiring special treatment, were thus discovered. Thus arose the need for truant schools and for special schools for defectives.

Defective children are not generally discovered until compulsory education sends them to school. Before that they are only "wicked."

Special day centres for such children have been inaugurated in the city of Providence, R.I. The first school was opened in 1896, with 12 pupils of from 9 to 15 years of age.

In France nothing has so far been done by the Government to meet the needs of the defective child.¹

In England, Germany, and America, the teachers of these schools are specially selected. They receive, too, a higher salary than ordinary teachers in all three countries, and enjoy all the usual privileges of the profession—pension, etc.

The essentials for the success of these special schools are:—

1. Small classes (never more than twenty children).
2. Special and appropriate premises and equipment.
3. Special methods of instruction and discipline.
4. The most skilful and sympathetic of teachers.

In Germany children are sent to these special schools only when, after having attended the ordinary school for two years,

¹ It is estimated that of such children France has 50,000 and Germany 60,000.

they show inability to profit by the instruction. They are then medically examined; and, while attending the school, a very minute and careful record is kept of their daily routine, health, and general behaviour. It is the duty of the schoolmaster to inform the school inspector or the "Schuldeputation" of any such defective child in his school. The children remain in the special school until they are about fourteen years of age, when, if they have reached the proficiency of an ordinary child of twelve, they may be dismissed. At the end of each term the special teacher informs the inspector whether any of his scholars are fit to return to the ordinary school, and quite a number are so returned.

In England the inspectors or members of the School Boards generally are informed by the teachers when a defective child is observed. The child is then medically examined, and, if found to be defective, duly despatched to the special school.

The task of educating defective children is one needing extraordinary skill. The essential basis of such a course is sense-training.

Not only do these children lack knowledge, but they lack judgment—their will is dead. They have no *experience* to organise, and consequently the teacher's first duty is to train them to responsiveness. These children have no environment—they lack the power of response.¹

Consequently sense-training is the first great aim of these schools. Many are the ingenious devices adopted to give the child some ideas of number, space, direction, etc. The

¹ It is curious that with all their infirmities defective children are often imaginative and vain. In one such "centre" the writer had been shown the various accomplishments of the children. One little lad had been left alone by the teacher; however, smiling, she called him up and asked him whether "he would read for the gentleman." Imagine the listener's surprise to hear the lad begin with his finger on the first word of the page, and having overcome that obstacle, deliberately and without hesitation go on reading a kind of connected story or fairy tale which was not in the book, but which he invented as he went along. It was by no means nonsense, and, although he always adopted this trick when asked to read, these stories were never the same. He was determined to make good his claim to the power of reading at all costs. Imagination and insanity are very near relations.

At a blind school a little girl of about ten was playing in the interval of an examination in the playground. She was, when the writer watched her, taking the hands of her companions (two boys) carefully over her frock and ribbons, for she had been decorated for the annual examination.

teacher in such schools has an inexhaustible bank of patience upon which to draw, and her professional skill is of the highest order. Mr. Charles Morley has given us a very sympathetic and true sketch of what is being done in these schools. He writes: "But the result is, as I have said, most delightful. *And the work has a market value.* That is a fact which these children all appreciate, and at least six of them informed me that some day they would go into the macrami business—'macrami' being the proper name for those articles. They showed me beautiful sewing, fair exercise-books, even sums in addition, subtraction, and multiplication. That way did madness once most surely lie—but see what four long years of assiduous effort have done! Many of them *can* write a little letter now, and that 'vaulting ambition hath not o'erleapt itself' after all. Pothooks are no more blurred with tears; the dark mysteries of carrying tens have been fathomed; hands have been strengthened, faculties sharpened by much exercise. It is impossible to believe that some of these boys and girls could scarcely articulate in the year of our Lord 1893 (*i.e.*, four years ago), had but the feeblest memory, and no sense of responsibility. So not in vain have those patient teachers wrought—the bees busy in their own poor heads bz-z-z-z. If limbs are still crooked, if cheeks are still pale, if ears still sing, yet the minds are at work, and the light is burning fairly."¹

Much of the time of these schools (in Germany nearly half) is devoted to manual training.

The number of defective children is probably very much larger than statistics show, for it is a common experience to find children "out of their place," so to speak, in school. If one, for example, takes a class of children who should be on the average, say, ten years of age, there are certain to be, besides one or two under that age, a considerable number of children of twelve, thirteen, and fourteen years. This is to some extent due to natural and obvious causes, but some of this "backwardness" is found, when investigated, to have its origin in defective senses. "I regret," says Dr. Rhys Davies in his report to the Swansea School Board, "that in many cases the defective eyesight had been hitherto quite unsuspected by the

¹ *Studies in Board Schools*, p. 173. An equally interesting account is given of a visit to a similar school in Germany by Dr. Klemm, in his *European Schools*, p. 77.

teachers, and very probably by the parents also. I have often, on going into a class-room, asked the teacher to name the dullest children in the class, and have found on examining these so-called dull children that they are not dull, but are suffering from defective sight or hearing."

In the report of the School Board of Berlin for 1895, we are told, "Of all the pupils in the first or primer classes in the city, there were 4 boys and 1 girl aged 14 years, 2 boys and 5 girls aged 13, 12 boys and 10 girls aged 12, 37 boys and 31 girls aged 11, 95 boys and 89 girls aged 10, 428 boys and 320 girls aged 9, who should be treated like those considered as being but 6 years old, or at most 7.

"Of all the pupils in the second grade in the city, there were 11 boys and 1 girl aged 14 years, 50 boys and 44 girls aged 13, 135 boys and 150 girls aged 12, 421 boys and 370 girls aged 11, 1,040 boys and 1,048 girls aged 10, who should be treated like those considered as being but 7, or at most 8, years old.

"Of all the pupils in the third grade in the city, there were 3 boys and 1 girl over 14 years, 56 boys and 48 girls aged 14, 389 boys and 438 girls aged 13, 896 boys and 1,006 girls aged 12, 1,804 boys and 2,031 girls aged 11, whose average age should be considered as being 9 or 10 years.

"Of all the pupils in the fourth grade in the city, there were 2 boys over 14 years, 214 boys and 236 girls aged 14 years, 1,392 boys and 1,457 girls aged 13, 2,346 boys and 2,710 girls aged 12, while the average age of normally endowed children of this grade is between 10 and 11 years." (C.R., 1896-97, p. 146.)

The following table, taken from Dr. Gommès' paper, shows clearly the high value of the work which the German schools for defective children are doing:—

A TABLE SHOWING RESULTS OF INSTRUCTION OF CHILDREN OF DEFECTIVE INTELLECT IN SOME GERMAN CITIES.

1898.	Able to gain their own Living.	Partly able to gain their own Living.	Incapable of gaining their own Living.	Total Number of Scholars.
Cologne ...	152	20	15	274
Frankfurt ...	The majority	—	10	127
Düsseldorf ...	90	9	5	119
Dresden ...	114	57	29	204

It must not be forgotten that every child so saved is an enormous gain to the State, for, as Mr. Douglas Morrison has pointed out in his book on *Juvenile Offenders*, it is from the defective class that the criminals of the country are recruited. These young prisoners are almost invariably mentally and physically defective. Of children in reformatories only some 13 per cent. are able to read or write with reasonable fluency, or, as Mr. Morrison puts it, "had received an ordinary School Board education."

He shows, too, how completely heredity and environment account for the defective, and this is confirmed by all other investigators. (Cp. Dr. Gomimès in *Revue pédagogique*, Nov. 1901.)

Yet, consider that instead of treating these children as the pathological patients they are, we deliberately send them to an institution which is the very opposite of a hospital. It is only children of the strongest physique that can hope to survive the rigours of a reformatory school, and yet it is to this institution we despatch our little social invalids. Is it any wonder that the death-rate of these institutions is so high?¹

The Education of Blind and Deaf Children.—Of all classes of defectives the blind are the least numerous and most amenable to intellectual discipline. Indeed, nature often compensates them for their loss of sight by a wonderful memory. In Germany a considerable number of blind children are taught in the ordinary schools, as the oral teaching lends itself to that.

In England there are 102 schools for blind and deaf children, duly certified by the Board of Education. There are places provided for 1,815 blind and 3,586 deaf children.

¹ Some time ago the writer was present in the police-court of a large and prosperous town in the North of England.

In the dock is a lad about ten years of age. The father, evidently a man of low intelligence, deposes that the boy spends nearly every night out, and rarely comes home or goes to school. He begs that the boy may be sent to a reformatory school "as he is quite beyond me."

The lad shows all the signs of a defective; he has a small, ill-shaped head, large prominent ears, open mouth, shifty eyes, the idiot's hands, and generally that lack of attention so characteristic of the defective. He is the least interested person in the whole court. Any one but him might have committed the felony.

However, he is duly sent to the reformatory.

THE EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVE CHILDREN. 375

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND IN ENGLAND.

	Number of Schools.	Accommodation.					
		Day Scholars.			Boarders.		
		Provided by School Boards.	Not provided by School Authorities.	Total.	Provided by School Boards.	Not provided by School Authorities.	Total.
Boarding Institutions...	2	21	23	30	18	48	86
Day Schools ...	17	—	17	359	—	359	—
Totals ...	19	21	40	389	18	497	86

SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN ENGLAND.

	Number of Schools.	Accommodation.					
		Day Scholars.			Boarders.		
		Provided by School Boards.	Not provided by School Authorities.	Total.	Provided by School Boards.	Not provided by School Authorities.	Total.
Boarding Institutions...	3	14	17	70	65	135	192
Day Schools ...	44	1	45	1,592	72	1,664	—
Totals ...	47	15	62	1,662	137	1,799	192

Towards the annual cost the Government pays nearly £20,000.

Of these schools sixty are for deaf children. It is interesting to observe that nearly half the deaf children are taught in day-schools or "centres" similar to those already described for defectives. Of the blind, however, only about one-fourth are taught in day schools. The reason is obvious—blind children are exposed to too many dangers in reaching the school of a great city for this system to be largely adopted.

In Prussia, as in England, these schools are partly institutional and partly day-schools. They are all subject to State inspection, and the vast majority of them are public institutions. Germany has a special school for the training of teachers of the deaf, consequently all the teachers are specially trained for their work, and are civil servants. They enjoy all the privileges and status of other teachers. The following statistics will give the reader a better idea of what Prussia is doing for her unfortunate children than any verbal description can. It proves how fully the State has recognised its duty to these little ones.

Class of School, 1896.	Urban and Rural Schools together.			
	Number of Schools.	Number of Classes.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Pupils.
Schools for Children with Defective Senses	248	858	920	14,780
(a) Public	97	531	586	7,324
(b) Private	151	327	334	7,456
Schools for the Blind	15	60	78	703
(a) Public	13	57	74	669
(b) Private	2	3	4	34
Schools for the Deaf	50	394	444	4,128
(a) Public	44	354	391	3,557
(b) Private	6	40	53	571
Reform Schools and Asylums ...	140	225	2,38	6,090
(a) Public	22	56	61	1,876
(b) Private	118	169	177	5,114
Schools for Feeble-minded and Idiots	43	179	160	2,959
(a) Public	18	73	60	1,222
(b) Private	25	106	100	1,737

In Prussia, as in England, parents are expected to pay for the education of their children, if they can afford it; if not, then it is a charge on the community.

In America, on the other hand, so ample and easy and free are the facilities for educating defectives, that it has been said (as quoted by Laishley), "One of the commonest fallacies of the parents of deaf children, and particularly of those who belong to the poorer classes, is that they ought to be released from the expense of procuring board for their deaf children, and send them to asylums where everything will be gratuitously provided for them. Now, this is plainly a pauperising system as regards the parents, and a demoralising one as regards the children."

However, no people in the world have dealt so generously and readily with their defectives as have the American people. Many of their schools are said to be magnificent edifices, and everything is done in the way of equipment and furnishing that American liberality and ingenuity can suggest. It was whilst Dr. Bell was endeavouring to benefit the deaf, that he, as it were, inadvertently benefited the race, by his discovery of the telephone.

Many of these American schools are boarding establishments. They are voluntary, but subsidised by the State, and they are nearly all free.

SCHOOLS FOR DEFECTIVE CLASSES IN AMERICA, 1898-99.

—	Blind.	Deaf.			Feeble Minded.	
		State Public Institutions.	Public Day-Schools.	Private Day-Schools.	Public Institutions.	Private.
Institutions ..	36	57	29	18	19	10
Instructors ..	393	1,007	79	72	233	48
Pupils	3,605	9,500	594	439	9,158	384
Expenditures ..	\$1,065,437	\$1,999,707	—	—	\$1,472,170	\$14,600
Value of Grounds, and Buildings ..	\$6,334,307	\$11,849,054	—	—	\$5,546,827	\$223,000

(Compiled from *C.R.*, 1898-99, p. 2,235.)

In France the institutions for deaf and blind children are mainly private or departmental boarding establishments. The

State indeed maintains three establishments for the deaf: one at Paris for boys, one at Bordeaux for girls, and one also at Chambéry, but these are necessarily inadequate. They educate 521 children, 269 boys and 252 girls. It has indeed been asserted that every deaf child in France is receiving a training; but the funds of the boarding schools are often meagre, though the local authority for education, the Departmental Council, annually subsidises certain of the institutions,¹ on condition that places are found there for the defective children of the department. There are 60 such institutions with nearly 3000 scholars, but their efficiency is uncertain, as they largely depend upon variable grants and charity. For the blind there is the National Institution at Paris, founded in 1784, and educating 150 boys and 80 girls at a cost per head of 1,200 francs per annum. The École Braille of the Department of the Seine educates about 100 children, and there are 21 other private or departmental schools for the blind with about 700 pupils.

The children enter the public schools at ten, but the private institutions often take them at an earlier age.

The system is admittedly unsatisfactory, and fails to meet the needs of the people. In the great French towns the need is felt of day-schools such as are found in London and all other large centres of population.

Besides the schools of a primary grade, America boasts of an institution for the higher education of deaf pupils—the Gallaudet College, which confers degrees on its graduates.²

The need of such a higher institution of learning for deaf children has been felt by teachers in England. In England higher instruction for blind children is provided at the Royal Normal Institution at Norwood. Here, thanks to the remarkable zeal and ability of an American blind teacher, our blind children are able to secure that fuller training so necessary for their future welfare. The educated blind rarely become a public charge, hence a wise economy insists upon their education.

In this connection it is important to remember that as a

¹ This subsidy on an average reaches £10 per annum, the remaining £10 (at least) required for each child being obtained from other sources (communal subventions, fees, etc.).

² Blind pupils occasionally attend and complete the ordinary High School course.

result of modern inventions, and of the application of the machine to industry, many of the arts available to the blind have been crowded out by competition. Here as elsewhere it is trained intelligence, not manual skill, that is needed, and hence will come the need for a fuller, richer training, in other words a secondary training, for our blind children. Hitherto the most suitable field for the occupation of the trained blind has been the teaching of music, and in all these schools pupils who show talent for it are taught music.

In all these special schools the curriculum is closely similar to that of the ordinary primary schools, the main purpose of all being to teach the pupil to read, write, and count. In the case of the deaf, of course, considerable modification occurs, for here much time and trouble is needed to supply the child with those simple ideas which normal children bring to school with them. It is difficult for those unacquainted with the working of the schools for the deaf to realise how utterly blank the minds of the children are, and how exhausting the labour of the teacher is. A few visits to such a school would be a healthy preface to a study of some systems of philosophy. No branch of education calls for more pedagogic knowledge and skill on the part of the teacher; and as this oral teaching of the deaf becomes, as it is becoming, more scientific daily, it is bound to exert a powerful and happy effect on the teaching in all schools. The condition of these children is such as to necessitate not only a highly trained teacher, but also small classes and very ample equipment.¹

The result is that some of these newer day-schools for the deaf are models of what we hope all our schools will ultimately develop into. Large, well-ventilated class-rooms, fitted with single desks, one for each child, are the rule. The children, about ten in number, are arranged in a semi-circle around the teacher, who herself sits at the centre with a small demonstra-

¹ It is to be remarked that only a small number of these children are born thus afflicted. Their defectiveness is generally due to some disease or accident, and whilst recognising the necessity of educating these children for citizenship, we may also hope that scientific investigation will open out possibilities of cure. Experiments seem to show that one of the oldest surgical operations known has a peculiarly beneficial effect on children of weak intellect. There can be no doubt that many cases of so-called lack of intelligence in children are matters for treatment by the doctor, not the schoolmaster. The peculiarly stupefying effects of diseases of the nasal organs are well recognised; indeed, one or two cases of that peculiar

tion table in front of her. The room is exceedingly well lighted, so that each child in the class may see clearly each movement of the teacher's vocal organs. In the lower part of all these schools for defectives the methods of the kindergarten are very generally adopted.

It was a pleasant sight to see half-a-dozen deaf babies busily playing in the sand-pit and in the play-room with their dolls. My own impression is that the atmosphere of these day-schools is much pleasanter than that of the boarding institution.

Everything is done to make the children happy, and even the weak-minded children seem to lose, to some extent, their vacant, uninterested stare when a stranger enters the room.

In the upper classes of these schools manual training is generally taught. The deaf are taught wood-work and the blind basket-work, and this leads on to the industrial training which is sometimes given during the years of school life, and sometimes subsequently.

It has often been pointed out that the blind are physically much weaker as a rule than seeing people, and the beneficial results of a system of physical training for deafness generally has often been insisted upon.¹

Many of these ills which flesh is heir to are due to insufficient or injudicious nutrition, before or after birth, and one of the most promising points of attack on these maladies is that based upon a scientific and complete course of physical training. Defectives, like criminals, have proved peculiarly

development called genius, have been traced to a blow or temporary injury in childhood.

A peculiarly sad case came under the notice of the writer some time ago. A boy of about fourteen years of age was an inmate of a school for deaf children. He had become deaf before he had learned to speak. However, he was sent to the day-school and was taught oral speech. Unfortunately, some time before my visit his eyesight had gradually gone, so that when I saw him he was deaf and blind. His teacher seized his hand, spoke to him by finger-touch, and he wished me "Good morning" in a clear voice. I do not mention this as being rare, but all this poor boy's troubles—deafness, blindness, and fearful head pains that he sometimes suffered from—were due, I was assured, to a tumour. Many surgeons had been approached, but all had refused to accept the risk of operating.

¹ Some recent investigations by Dr. G. A. Stephens go to show that the physical stamina and general health of deaf children are distinctly below that of normal children. Nearly 60 per cent. of a group of children examined by him showed evidence of some valvular affection of the heart.

amenable to a course of bathing and gymnastics. Swimming-baths have been provided with beneficial results, not only to their physical health, but to their general intelligence and character. The extraordinary success attending this method of treating criminals at Elmira opens out great possibilities for the rational treatment of defectives.¹

We have said that in essential respects the curriculum of these special schools is identical with that of the ordinary primary school, but it is obvious that in method very considerable modifications must occur.

In the case of the blind children, we find the Braille system of teaching reading, writing, and music generally adopted. This system, which was invented by a Frenchman in 1829, is based upon an alphabet of raised points on paper, over which the pupil passes his fingers, and so reads. In America another system, which consists of embossing the ordinary letters, was for a long time and is to some extent even now used, but the tangibility of these "line" letters is distinctly inferior in practice to the "point" letters of the Braille system.

In English schools for the blind, arithmetic is taught by means of a calculating board, which consists of a zinc plate with octagonal holes, into which a square pin can be placed. The figures are "written" by varying the positions (of which there are eight possible) of the square pin in the octagonal hole. By reversing the pin eight more positions are possible—*i.e.*, ten numerals and six algebraical signs.

For the teaching of geography embossed maps are used, and the skill developed by the children in reading these

¹ "The bathing and massage formed a very important part of the treatment. The routine, after several trials, resolved itself into three baths a week—*i.e.*, one tub and two vapour baths one week, followed the next week by two tub baths and one vapour. The tub bath consisted in placing a man in a tub of water heated to about 100° Fahr., and leaving him there to rub and soap himself for fifteen minutes or longer. From the tub he was placed upon a marble slab, where he was drenched with hot and cold water and sponged. After this the body was spatted until the skin was in a glow, the muscles pinched and kneaded, passive motions of the joints employed, followed by a brisk rubbing with a coarse wash-towel or Turkish bathing-mitten, all this being done by a professional trainer, who was available at the time. . . . This was followed by massage as before. After the bath the men usually slept until dinner-time. After dinner they were put through two hours or more of active physical exercise. . . . The results of this treatment were in every respect remarkable." (Havelock Ellis, *The Criminal*, 3rd ed., p. 331.)

maps is sometimes as remarkable as their skill in mental arithmetic.

It is an interesting fact that the idea of teaching the deaf occurred almost simultaneously to three different people. A German and a Scotchman, about the middle of the eighteenth century, each and independently conceived the idea of teaching the dumb to speak and to understand other speakers by watching the movements of their lips (though the Venerable Bede mentions the method as having been used by the Bishop of Hexham in A.D. 685). A French Abbé, about the same time, observing two deaf sisters conversing with each other by means of signs, diligently applied himself to the construction of a sign language, by which deaf mutes might be instructed. Thus arose simultaneously these two systems—the oral and the manual.

Germany has, from the first, consistently adopted the oral system. France for a long time maintained the manual system, but only a few of these schools now adopt it.¹ As for America, owing to a curious Scotch prejudice, her pioneer, Dr. Gallaudet, was unable to investigate the Scotch oral system, and so had to content himself with taking back to America a knowledge of the manual system, as he saw it taught in the French schools. The result has been that the American schools have clung with more persistence, perhaps, than any other schools to the manual system. The first oral school was opened in 1867, but received little public encouragement; however, since 1891 the oral system has made rapid strides. Of the 9,890 pupils in the State public schools, 3,623 were taught (in 1898-99) by the *combined* system, which is a compromise between the oral and manual, and doubtless has all the defects of a compromise; 3,301 pupils were taught by the purely oral method, and 3,169 were taught by the manual method. In the 18 private schools, of the 439 pupils, 256 were taught by the combined system, 141 were taught by the purely oral method, and 37 only by the manual method. In the public day-schools there are 594 pupils, of whom 110 are taught by the combined system, 324 by the purely oral method, and 9 by the manual method. In England, as in France and America, there seems to be a tendency for the boarding-school to cling to the manual method, and for the day-school to adopt

¹ It still persists in some of the private schools.

the oral method. Boarding establishments are always conservative.

In the day-school, every precaution is taken to avoid the introduction of manual signs into the school, but often with only partial success. I remember noticing two lads using manual signs to each other during my visit to such a school, and was assured by the teacher that they had constructed this language of themselves, and for themselves, and none else understood it. It has been said that even in Germany, when the deaf mute leaves the school and goes back among his own people, he drops the oral in favour of the manual method, despite the fact that the manual method is never used in the German school.

This oral system is based upon phonetics, and necessitates a very careful, laborious, and long training in the elements of sound. Extraordinary care is taken with each vocal element of the spoken language; small spatulas are used to move the tongue, lips, or throat into the right contour; hand-mirrors are used for the child to see the interior of his mouth, and numerous other means are adopted for securing correct vocalisation of sounds.¹ Much of this early work seems barren of results, and compares, in this respect, unfavourably with the manual method, but in the end the results by the oral are admittedly far superior to those obtained by the manual system. It was a great pleasure—indeed it was more, it was an intellectual treat—to listen to a geography lesson given on the best pedagogic lines to the top class of boys and girls in a deaf school, where the oral method had been used throughout. There was a play of intelligence, of imagination, of power in the faces of these children that compared remarkably with the somewhat stolid faces of children brought up on the manual system. This exercise of the vocal organs is healthful—it is physical exercise of a valuable kind, and reacts favourably upon the physical stamina of the children. Moreover, these children answered immediately and in well-modulated voices, not in the harsh and unpleasant tones of a poorly trained pupil. These children were prepared for full citizenship—they were

¹ The principles upon which modern languages are being taught to-day in the best German secondary schools are the same as those used, here described, for the training of deaf mutes. I feel sure that a few days' careful observation of the work done by these teachers of deaf mutes would be of great benefit to the modern-language teacher.

equipped for the battle of life as efficiently as their hearing brothers. What a gain to the State is this!

The result of this study of the education of defectives brings out the necessity of a more thorough medical inspection of our schools and scholars. There are doubtless many children in our ordinary schools possessing a reputation for stupidity which they ill deserve. Many of the larger English School Boards have organised medical inspection of the pupils. In Paris,¹ Brussels,² Boston, and elsewhere the children are periodically examined. In Germany the teachers at first resented the suggested medical inspection, fearing that doctors' orders might interfere with the work of the school.

A medical examination in 1895 of the school-children of Wiesbaden showed that one-fourth of them were "sick, physically defective, or suffering even from contagious diseases." This led to the appointment of four medical inspectors, at a fee of £30 per annum, and their duties were fixed by law as follows:—

1. Examination of all new-comers.
2. Keeping a record, for fourteen days, of each sick child.
3. Inspection and examination of class-rooms (ventilation, furniture, heating, etc.).
4. A medical consultation hour.
5. Lectures on health of children to the teachers.

¹ "Every school in Paris is inspected medically twice a month, and on other occasions as required by the mayor of the *arrondissement*. A register is kept in the school wherein the inspector, who must hold the diploma of a doctor of medicine, records the results of his observations and enters the names of any pupils who, owing to their state of health, he deems unfit for attendance in school. The inspection extends to everything in connection with the sanitary arrangements of the school, heating, ventilation, light, and even furniture. There is, in addition, a special individual inspection of the pupils once a month, including an examination of the eyes, ears, teeth, and general health. The reports are transmitted to the mayor, who every three months forwards a report founded on these to the Ministry" (Teegan, *Elementary Education in France*, p. 120.)

² *Children in the Schools of the City of Brussels*.—"Every child admitted to a primary school is medically examined, and the following points are recorded:—Name of child, nationality of parents, language spoken, place and date of birth. Further: age at time of admission, height, weight, circumference and diameter of head, circumference and diameter of chest, lung capacity, strength of traction, colour of hair and eyes. Any natural or accidental infirmity is chronicled, state of eyes and teeth, dental operations performed at the school, re-vaccination, with or without success, number of pustules. Any medicine which is ordered is noted, the date it is-

These inspectors found, on their examination of children newly admitted, that 7.6 per cent. of them were suffering from curvature of the spine; 9 per cent. were predisposed to rupture; and 13.6 per cent. were suffering from complaints of the eyes and ears. (See *C.R.*, 1899-1900, p. 826.)

These investigations have led the Prussian Government to take definite steps towards the organisation of medical inspection throughout the schools of the kingdom, rural and urban.

We have seen how the State has cared for her children—how she has, to the best of her ability, given them the training necessary for right living, how she has been making citizens of them.

Like the Good Shepherd, she has wandered over hill and down dale, in crowded slum and on the lonely moor, to bring her little ones in. She has taken them by the hand, and with infinite solicitude and care she has brought them to her home. In her many wanderings she has found some of them maim, and halt, and blind, some sore afflicted and wounded. And these she has taken in her arms, pressing them to her bosom with a more intense love than that she has given to the others. These, too, she will nurse back to strength and full life. Their sufferings compel her pity. She knows that these little sinners

begun, and the date it ceases, with the results obtained. This examination is repeated annually, so as to keep a record of each child's physical development.

"Cleanliness."—Great attention is paid to this point. In the kindergarten, when the children arrive they are carefully passed in review. Every child must be clean with smooth hair, and clean under-linen twice a week is rigorously enforced. [This is surely a "counsel of perfection."] The teacher must see that every child has a pocket-handkerchief; if any children are found to be dirty they must be handed over to the *femme de ferme* to be washed. Before leaving school they are again inspected, and are always to be sent home perfectly clean, with their clothes in proper order. If children are sent dirty the head teacher admonishes the parents, and if after several warnings no improvement takes place, she may ask the educational authority of the town to send a remonstrance to the parents; if that takes no effect, the child is forbidden to attend school. In the older schools cleanliness and neatness are to be insisted on; unsuitable (*banale*) methods of wearing the hair, or those likely to spread any infectious disease, are forbidden. The teacher of a class must report to the head teacher any children who are habitually dirty or untidy, and he or she will communicate with the parents. In cases of excessive uncleanliness the head teacher may send a child home. Bad marks are given for uncleanliness." (Miss Montgomery in vol. ii., *Special Reports, Board of Education in 1899*.)

are atoning, not for their own but their parents' or grandparents' transgressions. Nature is harsh in her judgments, she knows not pity; but the State, the good mother, knows that it is her blessed privilege to succour these. And she does this for *their* sakes mainly, and only secondly for her own. It is this inalienable right of each individual in the State to full development that is at the basis of the modern democratic State. Education is one of the "rights of man," not of the State.

When one thinks of the lives led by these defective children only some fifteen or twenty years ago, and then of this work which we have endeavoured to describe in this chapter, one realises that though the sin and the suffering of life often hide the light and cloud the understanding, yet there is movement, and that movement is upwards.

CHAPTER XV.

CONCLUSIONS.

OUR task is ended. We have outlined four pictures which, we believe, are definite and true, although details here and there may be unsteady or obscure. Moreover, such a study as we have made emphasises an old truth.

Each system of education can only be understood when seen in its own setting. Each is an expression of its nation's genius; it is characteristic of its people. In so far as it is thriving it is truly popular, and only so far as it is popular and peculiar is it national. The *habitat* of each system is fixed, it is an indigenous product; consequently it is not only unscientific, but it is impossible to measure comprehensively any system of national education in terms of another. These systems cannot be arranged in order of merit. The finer elements, the more ethical and spiritual factors in national culture, defy the balance of the analyst and the scalpel of the anatomist; they are susceptible to no quantitative tests.

Thus the whole drift of our investigations points to this one main conclusion: every country has, in the main, that system of training best adapted to its present needs, and most capable of developing in such a way as to meet future national needs.

Although, however, each system is, as we have said, characteristic, yet they all reveal certain general tendencies which show unmistakably the growth of world-citizenship that is going on all over the globe.

The differences in national idiosyncrasies seem to be slowly disappearing. Similar movements may be observed agitating the mass, whether that be European or American. Certain aspects of this problem of national education are becoming more prominent and well defined as time grows older.

The most striking of these movements is that towards true social equality, and in no respect is this more striking than in the recognition of the equality of the sexes. That it is for the

common and individual weal that not boys only but girls too should receive a complete intellectual, physical, and moral training is a truth that was left for the end of the nineteenth century to discover, though even to-day certain distinctions shown in the education of girls evidence the limitations and restrictions once considered essential, and now estimated not altogether dispensable. The utilitarian tendencies, characteristic of a certain stage in the evolution of the educational ideal, are still potent in the training of little girls. · Needlework, cookery, laundry-work, and such-like responses to utilitarian demands find no counterparts in the education of boys.

With these limitations—which, however, may be said to be characteristic of one, or perhaps two, of these national systems only,—girls to-day are receiving an identical training to boys. How different is all this from the days when the girls of even the better classes had to be content with a superficial equipment of very varied accomplishments, which even apologists could hardly dignify as an education. As for the lower classes, it was only by stealth or charity that the girls secured some of the crumbs manufactured, owing to the voracity of their brothers. It is not a hundred years ago since at Hatfield (Mass.) a little American girl used to resort to the school doorstep, beyond which she dared not penetrate, to listen to the recitations of her little male friends inside.

In the field of higher education, as we have already seen, girls are to-day obtaining an education equal, at any rate, to that of boys; and freed as it generally is from some of the more vicious influences that tradition and authority have woven around that of boys, it is able to develop naturally and spontaneously, without and within; while in the more democratic States, so fortunate have women been through the organisation of the social community, that as men have been early drawn into and securely held by the vortex of commerce, the nobler aspects of social life have been relinquished to women, who are thus enabled not only to secure the greater share of the common intellectual capital of the nation, but appear to be becoming the receptacle and protector of whatever ideals animate and sustain the national life. That this is well, however, is more than doubtful. The sexes are complementary, not supplementary. To hand over the task of educating the young and maintaining the intellectual capital of the nation to its women is not only a new, but, we venture to think, a most

dangerous experiment. So long as the organisation of modern society and the mutual attitude of the sexes, to say nothing of their inherent mental characteristics, remain as they are to-day, it will be indispensable that the future governors, administrators, leaders—manhood—should receive a training that will engender that virility, strength, and persistence so necessary to the general growth of the race.

The development of femininity, of sentimentalism, of adaptability at the expense of reverence, is the price exacted of a people placing training entirely in the hands of women.

On the other hand, some of the most essential attributes of the teacher are characteristics of women, and there can be little doubt that the bulk of the teaching of the future will be done, and rightly so, by them.

Another general and international movement is the lengthening of the school-life.

The school-life of the primary pupil is in America from four to five years, in England and Germany from seven to eight years. This period of adjustment of education is everywhere increasing. The growing complexity of modern life compels this, and the amelioration in social conditions makes it possible. As the complexity of life increases, and the interests of the individual increase, so this period of adjustment lengthens. The secondary scholar, living in a fuller world with more diverse and subtle interests, needs a training which in France, England, and America covers from twelve to thirteen years, whilst in Germany a further two or three years are absorbed in this task, and the entry into life consequently postponed. The wisdom of this prolonged delay is doubtful. At best the atmosphere of the school has a certain artificiality and exclusiveness which detach it from life, and too prolonged a residence therein may produce modifications of organism that will make the ultimate change difficult and even dangerous.

And now it is necessary to say something more of what is the most significant of all these general movements alluded to. It is the tendency we have seen developed to some slight extent in France, to a greater extent in Germany, to a still greater extent in England, and most of all in America, towards materialising in education the democratic ideal which in very different degrees is agitating and troubling these peoples. In primary education the ideal is realised in the common school

for all classes, the Einheitsschule of German reformers. In France it remains largely an ideal; in Germany it has materialised in a few of the States (Bavaria, etc.); in England it is found to a certain limited extent; in Wales and America it is real. Doubtless time will see the ideal universally realised, for as altruism grows, so will develop the doctrine of equality of opportunity and the recognition of the obligations of the community to each member of it.

In the secondary school the same movement is discernible in the constant, and partially successful, efforts to dethrone the classics from their position of supremacy.

Democracy is impossible in a school where the classics reign supreme. Nothing develops the critical attitude as much as a scientific training. Linguistic training generally cultivates an attitude of dependence; scientific training challenges all authority. Both attitudes are in some respects extreme and objectionable.

In England, as we have seen, the classics are supreme; in Germany and France the modern languages are dangerous rivals, but science as a rival is *une quantité négligeable*. In America both have to be reckoned with. Until this tyranny of classicalism has been abolished, and the claims of science recognised, it will be impossible to realise the democratic ideal. Time again will, however, see the ideal realised. The first phase in this realisation will probably be the organisation of a system of schools avowedly independent of the classical spirit and keenly responsive to modern needs. Let us hope that they will not lack the true humanistic spirit. The Berlin Conference of 1890-91 concluded that two types of secondary schools were alone needed—the classical or Gymnasium and the modern or Realschule. Intermediate types are unnecessary, and pedagogically unsound. The adoption of modern sides in both England and France has been condemned in theory and found inefficient in practice. Such a double system, however, cannot be considered as a permanent realising of the ideal. Socially such a separation of the future citizens of the State is unfortunate, and therefore it is with interest and sympathy that all true democrats will watch the efforts of American educators to solve this problem. Is it possible to frame a curriculum which shall serve for all?

In discussing this problem certain premises are necessary. For example, the independence of the school, both primary

and secondary, must be admitted; the first task of every school is to educate the child, not to prepare for life. True education, however, is the best preparation for life. In parenthesis we may note here that all German schools provide an education that is essentially an education *ad hoc*, an education for the purposes of life.

Again, the solidarity of education, primary and secondary, must be recognised. We have already said something as to the essential solidarity of the curricula of the primary and secondary school in the democratic State, but some amplification is perhaps necessary.

The purpose of education is to place the boy or girl, child of peasant or peer, *en rapport* with the environment. It is to place them in touch with, and make them responsive to, the civilisation into which they are born—to make the world in which they have to live intelligible to them. This, as we have already pointed out, is made up of two factors—nature and man. But these two may be further subdivided into:—

1. Nature as Organic and Inorganic.
2. Man as thinker, actor, and worshipper, in which are respectively included the Theoretical, the Practical, and the Ästhetic sides of man.¹

Within these five directions lies the whole field of all true education. These are the five fundamentals of training. Let us consider how far the curriculum of the primary school meets these demands.

Inorganic nature forms the subject of the lessons in elementary physical science, which introduce to the observation of the pupil the varied phenomena of the world around him; while the science of number (arithmetic) enables him to quantify and locate his experiences in that world. “By its mastery man to a great degree obtains theoretical dominion over time and space, and by it he can formulate the entire inorganic world.” (W. T. Harris, *Educational Values*.)

The world of organic nature is made real and intelligible by the lessons in nature-study and geography. In the former the pupil is made acquainted with the teeming world of life around him. The forms of animal and plant life in all their diversity and beauty are brought before the observation; they help to fix the attention and organise the imagination. This know-

¹ See *Educational Values*, W. T. Harris. (C.R., 1893-94, p. 617.)

ledge of the living environment is completed by the course in geography which deals with the surface features, the climate, the heavens above, the waters around and within.

The humanistic elements of the curriculum now deserve attention. The arts of reading and writing, with grammar as the science of correct expression, are intended to develop the man as thinker. By means of these arts the mental powers are enormously increased, inasmuch as the power of apperception is strengthened, and the circle of realisable experience widened. By reading, the individual obtains the experience of the race. Reading makes life richer and longer. National culture is impossible without books.

To develop man as doer, history is an indispensable element of the curriculum. By history he has at his disposal the acquired experience of the race. By a study of history the pupil learns his place in society, and his duties and privileges as a social unit. It makes the life of to-day intelligible to him, and he becomes an actor under the influence of complete knowledge, and therefore right judgment.

Finally, the æsthetic and religious side of child-nature is developed by the beautiful prose he reads, the noble examples he hears of, the poems he learns, the songs and hymns of school, and by the forms he draws and models, not to speak of the silent ministers of beautiful surroundings.

These, then, are the five gateways that open into the world of childhood, and through these alone may the child reach the world of a full, rich manhood. All are indispensable, and no curriculum may omit any. This is the scientific curriculum for all primary scholars. It is fixed regardless of the demands of other schools; the only demands admitted are those of a full and complete childhood.

All children must live in this world of the present, but some will have a fuller and richer life than others. These latter will therefore need a more generous, but not essentially different curriculum. They will need a further period of adjustment, and this they will obtain in the so-called secondary school. The curriculum of this latter school will consequently be a development of that of the primary school, and the five fundamentals of the primary will remain those of the secondary school. Thus the elementary science of the primary will develop into the chemistry and physics of the secondary school; arithmetic will develop into algebra,

geometry, and trigonometry; nature-study becomes biology; and geography grows into geology and physiography.

On the humanistic side, the child (as thinker) will replace his lessons in the home tongue by studies of the ancient or modern tongues, together with the principles of comparative philology and philosophy. National history develops into international history, and the beginnings of æsthetic and ethical studies of the primary school will easily and naturally develop into the riper and richer courses of the secondary school. The following table will explain perhaps more clearly what one means by this solidarity of curriculum :—

	Natural Studies.		Humanistic Studies.		
	Inorganic.	Organic.	Theoretical.	Practical.	Æsthetic.
Elementary School.	Arithmetic and Elementary Physical Science.	Geography and Nature Study.	Reading, Writing, and Grammar.	History of England.	Poetry, Drawing, Songs, etc.
Secondary School.	a { Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, b { Physics, Chemistry.	Physical Geography, Astronomy, Geology, Biology, Physiology.	Ancient Languages. Modern Languages. (Philosophy.)	International History.	History of English Literature. A Special Study of a Standard Author. Rhetoric (<i>i.e.</i> , the Elements of Composition, Oral and Written). Drawing, etc.

(See C.R., 1893-94, p. 638.)

In each of these five columns of the secondary school are included a considerable number of subjects, such a number, indeed, as obviously would make it impossible to include them all in the secondary school curriculum. That, however, is neither necessary nor desirable.

The subjects in each individual column are considered as

mutually equivalent, and therefore interchangeable. *These, indeed, are the true electives.* They are intellectually equivalent. Their culture-content as well as their discipline-value are considered equal. So long as each of the fundamental groups is represented, the pedagogic demands of a scientific curriculum are satisfied. That is the only area within which the system of electives is legitimate.

Certain aspects of these systems have now been discussed, but what shall be said of this international movement itself?

What is the true significance of this general movement towards national training, and whither wends it? *Quousque tandem?* Of its possible, and indeed probable, effects on the physical stamina of the race we have already spoken, and nothing remains but to say something as to the probable direction of development. It has been assumed that the education of the future will consist in the early specialisation of each individual—that as time goes on the sphere of individual activity will become less extensive and more intensive, and that consequently such social specialisation will lead to what may be termed anatomical specialisation; so that, instead of a man of general culture being the ideal, life will demand and obtain beings whose special aptitudes have been so developed as to result in the atrophy of many other functional organs. This view is, we believe, wrong, and, to those who read history and comparative ethnology aright, the converse appears true.

It would seem, indeed, that the one essential distinction between different grades of civilisation—between the Bushman and the Aryan,—between primitive man and the modern European,—is in the difference of variability and adaptability to different environments. The European is cosmopolitan, the Papuan indigenous.

The training of the future will be less concerned with instruction and more with education. It will be recognised that all the child, not some of him, must be developed and trained; that the nurture and growth of his body is a duty no less indispensable than that of his soul or mind; that adaptability, not specialisation, is the object of all true culture; that not one or other aptitude must be tended, but all, if any are to be strong. Man will not live by bread alone, even in the future; he will need more than ever that broad, deep, humanistic culture without which there can be no life. Rather than

early specialisation, the new age will need an ever-increasing and ever-widening stream of liberal training, stained and tinctured by no polluted feeder of utilitarian studies, but fed by the bright and pellucid, sparkling and limpid streamlets that issue from the pure regions of some Parnassian height. The school of the future will have as its task, not the manufacturing of coming electricians and chemists, but of highly skilled and fully cultured intellects prepared for all the problems of life, not some of them. The technical and professional school will follow the national school. In this last school all citizens will receive that equipment of liberal culture which is the one indispensable to a successful professional training.

The school of to-morrow will aim to produce mental alertness in its pupils, and to supply the nation with a corps of trained intelligences. The national strength and greatness will be estimated in terms of trained intelligence, not in bullion or acreage. The school will turn out minds intimately cognisant with all the forces of nature, and prepared to yoke them all to the common needs, finding the freedom of humanity in the serfdom of nature, and building their own liberty on their skill and wisdom, not on their fellows' ignorance. The old-world fallacies, that the liberty of the higher postulates the slavery of the lower, and that social distinctions are decreed of Heaven, must give place to the more generous faith of freedom and equality for all. And as man goes on conquering Nature and yoking her forces to his needs, less and less will the necessity be felt of maintaining special classes of society for special spheres of duty. There will be no need for a labouring class and no room for a leisured class.

APPENDIX A.

SUMMARY OF LAWS RELATING TO SCHOOL BOARDS OF CERTAIN CITIES. [C.R., 1898-99, p. 1,495.]

TABLE A.

City.	Name of School Board.	Number of Members.	How chosen.	Selected from the city at large, wards, or districts.	Term of office.	Vacancies in the Board for unexpired term are filled by	Remarks.
San Francisco	Board of School Directors	4	Appointed by mayor	City at large	4 years; 1 appointed each year	Mayor	Each director receives \$3000 per annum
Washington, D.C.	Board of Education	7	Appointed by Commissioners (or general executive officers) of District of Columbia	Do.	7 years; 1 appointed each year	District Commissioners	Each member to receive \$10 for attendance at each meeting; total not to exceed \$500 a year
Atlanta, Ga.	Board of Education	9	x from each of 7 wards, elected by mayor and council; mayor and chairman of committee of council on public schools are members <i>ex officio</i> Elected by the people	Wards, except as to <i>ex officio</i> members	5 years; a portion elected each year	Mayor and Council	
Indianapolis, Ind.	Board of School Commissioners	5		City at large	4 years; elections biennial, 3 chosen at one election, 2 at the next, etc.	Board of School Commissioners	Candidates must be nominated by 200 householders
Baltimore, Md.	Board of School Commissioners	9	Appointed by mayor, and confirmed by second branch of the city council	Do.	6 years; 3 chosen each alternate year	Mayor, with confirmation as described	
St. Louis, Mo.	Board of Education	12	Elected by the people	Do.	6 years; 4 elected each alternate year	Mayor till next election	
New York, N.Y.	Board of Education of the City of New York	16	4 chairmen of borough school boards <i>ex officio</i> ; 10 elected by school board of Manhattan and the Bronx; 5 elected by school board of Brooklyn Appointed by the mayor	Boroughs	1 year	Borough school boards	
	School Board of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx	21		Borough at large	3 years; one-third appointed each year	Mayor	
	School Board of the borough of Brooklyn	45	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
	School Board of the borough of Queens	9	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
	School Board of the borough of Richmond	9	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
Rochester, N.Y.	Board of Education	5	Elected by the people	City at large	4 years; elections biennial, 3 chosen at one election, 2 at the next, etc.	Mayor till next election	
Toledo, Ohio	Board of Education	5	Do.	Do.	5 years; 1 elected each year	Board of Education till next election	Candidates must be indorsed by 200 voters
Milwaukee, Wis.	Board of School Directors	21	Appointed by commission of 4; appointed by the mayor, each year for 4 years	Wards	3 years; one-third appointed each year	Board of Commissioners	

Directors

Appointed by the mayor, x each year for 4 years

pointed

TABLE B

City.	Principal source of revenue.	Maximum amount of tax for schools.	Manner of selecting Superintendent, and term, if prescribed.	Authority to examine teachers.	Authority to appoint teachers.	Construction of buildings decided by
San Francisco	Tax levied by supervisors on demand of Board of Directors.	\$3.50 per pupil in average attendance	Elected by the people; 4 years	Superintendent and deputy superintendents	Board of Directors	Board of Public Works on requisition of Board of Directors; plans approved by Board of Directors
Washington, D.C.	Appropriations by Congress; one-half from District of Columbia taxation; one-half from Federal Treasury	—	Elected by Board of Education	—	Board of Education	District Commissioners; plans of inspector of buildings of District of Columbia
Atlanta, Ga.	Appropriations by City Council from General Fund	—	Elected by Board of Education	—	Do.	Board of Education
Indianapolis	Tax levied by Board of School Commissioners	50 cents on \$100	Elected by Board of Commissioners; 1 year; 4 years if re-elected	Determined by Board of Commissioners	Superintendent	Business director
Baltimore	Appropriations by City Council	—	Appointed by Board of School Commissioners	Superintendent and assistant superintendents	Superintendent; confirmation by Board of School Commissioners	City inspector of buildings; plans approved by Board of School Commissioners
St. Louis	Tax levied by Board of Education	40 cents on \$100, or 50 cents on \$100 by popular vote	Appointed by Board of Education; 4 years	Superintendent	Superintendent; subject to control of Board of Education	Commissioner of school buildings
New York	Appropriations by City Board of estimate and apportionment	—	Appointed by Board of Education; 6 years	City Superintendents and 4 examiners nominated by him	Borough School Boards	Superintendent of school buildings; plans submitted to Borough School Board and approved by Board of Education
Rochester	Appropriations by City Council	\$25 per capita of total enrolment	Appointed by Board of Education; 4 years	Superintendent and 2 persons nominated by him	Superintendent and principals, subject to approval of Board of Education	City Executive Board; plans of Board of Education approved by Board of Health
Toledo	B	B	Employed by Board of Education; 2 years	—	Superintendent, with approval of Board of Education	Board of Education through business manager
Milwaukee	Tax levied by City Council at request of Board of Directors	35 cents on \$100 for teachers and current expenses; 2½ cents on \$100 for repairs	Elected by Board of Directors; 3 years	Committee of Superintendent, President of the Board, and two members of the Board of Directors	Committee of Superintendent, President of the Board, and 2 members of the Board of Directors	City Council on request of Board of Directors; plans determined by a committee

A Minimum amount to be appropriated for supervising and teaching staff to be equivalent to 40 cents on \$100; maximum not specified.

B Not specified in special law.

C City Council erects new buildings.

APPENDIX B.

THE Education Bill of 1902 proposes considerable changes in the administration and organisation of education in England and Wales. The Bill deals with the problem of the denominational schools, and the lack of unity in local administration. The proposed changes affect the constitution and the power of the local authority over all schools. The present School Boards are to be abolished, and the whole of public education, primary and secondary, within each county and county borough, is to be under the control and supervision of the county or county-borough council. Non-county boroughs with a population of over 10,000, and urban district councils with a population of over 20,000, are exempt from county-council control, and may themselves become the local authority for primary, and, concurrently with the county council, for secondary education. These councils will act through a committee constituted under a scheme approved by the Board of Education, which committee is intended to represent the varied interests of the schools within its area. All schools, denominational and unsectarian, are to be financed equally from the local rates (excluding, in the case of denominational schools, capital expenditure), and in return the public local authority will be represented on the management of all schools other than those provided by itself. The local authority will control the secular instruction of all rate-aided schools, over which it will also exercise a general supervision. It will also have a veto on the appointment of teachers in schools other than its own. Diverting the present aid grant hitherto given to all voluntary schools, and the grant given in aid of necessitous School Boards, the Government will in addition provide an annual sum of about £900,000, and the total sum thus obtained, amounting to about one and three-quarter million pounds, will be distributed by the central to the local authorities largely in proportion to the need of each district.

INDEX.

A. = United States of America
E. = England and Wales

F. = France
G. = Prussia

- ACADEMY, *see* Private schools
Accommodation, school—
 in A., 136, 145, 272
 in E., 29, 39, 61
 in F., 104
 in G., 81
Accommodation, training-college—
 in A., 151
 in E., 56, 57, 58
 in F., 122
 in G., 91, 93, 94
Accrediting system, 292
Adaptability in education, 365, 366,
 394, 395
Additional teachers, 52, 55, 61, 95
Administration, *see* Authority
Age of leaving school, 197
 in A., 136, 139, 197, 274
 in E., 46, 47, 48, 197
 in F., 107, 108, 197
 in G., 68, 84, 85, 197, 249, 250
Age of scholars, 9, 214, 249, 274
 294, 302, 331
Alcoholism and school children, 24
 et seq.
Ambulatory schools, 135
Areas, school, 84, 169, 170
Assistant teachers, 52, 55, 61, 126
Associations, teachers', 158
Attendance, actual, 168
 in A., 131, 134, 137, 159, 160,
 269
 in E., 35, 44, 45, 46, 85, 168
 in F., 84, 119, 120, 168
 in G., 83-86, 168
Attendance, laws of school—
 in A., 134-136, 137
 in E., 34
 in F., 107, 120
 in G., 68, 69, 86 (note), 168
- Authority, central—
 in A., 131, 134, 269
 in E., 31, 165, 309, 332 (Wales)
 in F., 102, 164, 165, 213
 in G., 65, 163, 236
Authority, local—
 in A., 131, 132, 166 *et seq.*, 269
 See also Appendix A
 in E., 33, 165, 309, 311, 330
 (Wales)
 See also Appendix B
 in F., 103, 165, 213
 in G., 66, 163, 236
Average school, 159
- BACCALAUREAT, 214, 225-229
Backward children, 372, 373
Banks, school, 39, 75, 115, 147
Blind, education of the, 379-381
 in A., 377
 in E., 374, 375, 378
 in F., 377, 378
 in G., 376
Board schools, *see* Schools, primary
Boys' education, 335
Braille, Ecole, 378
Braille system, 381
British schools, *see* Schools, primary
Buildings, school, 37, 39, 72, 73, 74,
 113 *et seq.*, 143 *et seq.*, 307, 308;
 see also Furnishings
Bureaucracy, 103, 133, 163, 164,
 165, 215, 297
Bursaries, 331
- CENSOR, 220
Chapel, school, 307
Choice of curriculum, *see* Electives
Church schools, *see* Religion—
 in A., 193

- Church schools (*contd.*)—
 in E., 29, 37, 194
 in F., 106, 192
 in G., 67, 192
 Civics, 117, 118
 Classical studies—
 in A., 276, 277, 390
 in E., 302, 305, 314, 317, 319,
 320, 390
 in F., 225 *et seq.*, 233, 390
 in G., 251 *et seq.*, 263, 353, 390
 Clothing and feeding of school children, 19 *et seq.*
 Co-education, 80, 275, 331, 347-352
 Commercial competition, 189, 261
 Communal college, 215, 217
 Competition of children, 222, 270,
 271
 Competition of schools, 30, 106, 192,
 193, 194, 214, 272, 275
 Compulsory education, *see* Attendance
 Concurrent curricula, 245, 283, 316-
 318
 Conferences of teachers, 155, 176
 Control of State, 163, 297
 in A., 134
 in E., 31, 165, 296, 328
 in F., 102 *et seq.*, 213, 216
 in G., 65 *et seq.*, 235, 239
See also Bureaucracy
 Conventional training, 16, 357
 Conveyance of children to school,
 147
 Corporal punishment, 90, 91, 187
 in A., 146, 187, 370
 in E., 187, 315
 in F., 90, 182
 in G., 90, 182, 187
 Cribs, 319
 Criminals, treatment of, 374, 381
 Curriculum of higher primary school—
 in E., 211
 in F., 209
 in G., 206
 Curriculum of primary school, 173,
 390
 in A., 148 *et seq.*, 176
 in E., 40 *et seq.*, 175, 352, 353, 388
 in F., 116 *et seq.*, 174
 in G., 66, 76-78, 173
- Curriculum of secondary school, 293,
 392—
 in A., 277, 282-287, 288, 289
 in E., 302-305, 306, 316, 317, 333
 (Wales)
 in F., 225 *et seq.*
 in G., 243 *et seq.*, 251
- DEAF, education of the, 379, 382,
 383
 in A., 377, 378, 382
 in E., 374, 375, 376, 378, 379,
 382, 383
 in F., 377, 378, 382
 in G., 374, 376, 382
- Defectives (weak-minded), education
 of, 367
 in A., 369, 370
 in E., 369, 370, 371, 372
 in F., 370
 in G., 368, 370, 371, 372, 373
- Defectives, number of, 367, 368,
 372—
 in A., 369, 370, 377
 in E., 369
 in F., 370 (note)
 in G., 370 (note)
- Democracy in education, 7, 8, 10,
 265-268, 293, 389
- Denominationalism, *see* Church schools
- Discipline of primary school—
 in A., 146, 186
 in E., 183, 186
 in F., 182, 186
 in G., 182, 186
- Discipline of secondary school—
 in A., 186
 in E., 315
 in F., 215, 221, 223, 224
 in G., 247
- Dual schools, 331, 347
- École maternelle*, 114, 120
- Education as a social force, 338
- Education of boys and girls, distinctions of, 352, 388
- Effects of education—mental, 201;
 physical, 202
- Einheitsschule*, 8, 193, 390
- Electives, 393
 in A., 278, 287, 289, 318

- Electives (*contd.*)—
 in E., 318
 in F., 226, 229
 in G., 245
- Employment of school children—
 (a) Laws of—
 in A., 134, 135, 139
 in E., 34
 in F., 109, 110
 in G., 68, 69
 (b) Actual, 200 *et seq.*
 in A., 139, 200
 in E., 46, 48, 49, 200
 in F., 108, 200
 in G., 86 *et seq.*, 200
- Endowments, 301, 310, 330
- Enrolment of primary school, 167
 in A., 162
 in E., 29, 47, 61
 in F., 106, 107, 128
 in G., 8, 68
- Equivalence of studies, 278, 288, 393
- Evening high schools, 279
- Examinations of pupils, 31, 32, 321
 in A., 292
 in E., 317, 332-334 (Wales), 363
 in F., 107, 214, 226 *et seq.*, 230
 in G., 249, 250, 254
- Examinations of teachers—
 in A., 159, 292
 in E., 53, 322
 in F., 121, 123, 124, 231, 232, 357
 in G., 92, 93, 256, 257
- Exclusiveness of teacher, 165
- Excursions, school, 175
- Expenditure on secondary schools—
 in A., 273
 in E., 311, 312, 332 (Wales)
 in F., 219
 in G., 239
- Expenditure on buildings—
 in A., 145, 153, 159, 273
 in E., 37, 38, 39, 40, 331 (Wales)
 in F., 113
 in G., 72, 73
- Expenditure per head of population, 140-142, 189
- Expenditure per primary scholar—
 in A., 142, 159, 172
 in E., 37, 172
 in F., 112, 172
 in G., 71, 72, 172
- Expenditure per school place—
 in A., 160
 in E., 38, 332 (Wales)
 in F., 113
 in G., 73
- Expenditure, relation between local and national—
 in A., 140, 141, 171
 in E., 35, 170
 in F., 110-112, 171
 in G., 70, 171
- Expenditure, total national, 189
 in A., 140
 in E., 35
 in F., 112
 in G., 70
- Externat*, 235
- Extraneous tasks, 97, 98, *see* Teachers
- FEEDING of school children, 19
et seq.
- Fees, school—
 in A., 273
 in E., 312, 313, 332 (Wales), 377
 in F., 216, 378
 in G., 204, 238, 239, 354, 377
- Free education, 267-269
- Freedom of teacher, 177
- Funds for secondary education in England, 313
- Furnishings of school, 173
 in A., 144, 145, 147, 279
 in E., 38, 39, 307, 331, 332 (Wales)
 in F., 113, 114, 115, 216
 in G., 74, 75, 240, 241
- GALLAUDET College, 378
- Games, school, 173
 in A., 291
 in E., 17, 302, 309
 in F., 173, 216
 in G., 247, 261
- Gardens, school, 173
 in E., 42
 in F., 114, 115
 in G., 75
- Girls' education, 335, 388
 — physical effects of, 341-344
- Girls, higher education of, 337, 339, 340, 341, 388
 in A., 350, 360
 in E., 361-364

- Girls, higher education of (*contd.*)—
 in F., 218, 356-359
 in G., 353-356
- Grammar schools, 303; *see Schools, secondary*
- Growth of national education, 2, 3
 in A., 162
 in E., 61
 in F., 128
 in G., 98
- H**ALF-DAY schools—
 in A., 145
 in F., 108
 in G., 83
- Half-timers, *see Employment*
- Health of school children, *see Over-pressure*
- Health of school girls, *see Girls*
- Heuristic methods, 253, 280
- Higher primary school, 212
 in E., 210, 211
 in F., 207, 208
 in G., 204-207
- Higher primary school, after-career
 of pupils, 210
 — cost per pupil, 204-209
 — curriculum, 206, 209, 211
 — fees, 204, 208
 — number of scholars, 207, 210,
 211
- “House” system of English public
 school, 220, 309, 327
- Houses, teachers’, 60, 97, 113, 114, 125
- House-workers in Germany, 164
- IDIOTS, 367
- Illiteracy—
 in A., 172
 in E., 172
 in F., 106, 172
 in G., 172
- Independence of school, 278, 322
- Individuality in education, 11, 161,
 163, 215, 267, 287, 288, 297, 340
- Infant schools, 167
 in A., 167
 in E., 38, 40, 167, 278
 in F., 167, 278
 in G., 167
- Inspectors of schools—
 in A. (superintendent), 154, 155
- Inspectors of schools (*contd.*)—
 in E., 31
 in F., 103, 118, 218, 230
 in G., 66, 67, 254, 355
- Intellectual standards of schools,
 294, 298, 301
- Intermediate schools of Wales, 9,
 330 *et seq.*
- Internat*, 16, 220
- J**EWS, proportion of scholars, 237, 238
- Juvenile offenders, 374
- K**ING’S scholarship examination, 53
- L**ABORATORY method, *see Heuristic Ladder, educational*—
 in A., 267, 268
 in E., 8, 328, 331 (Wales)
 in F., 213, 214
 in G., 6, 7, 262
- Language, *see Mother-tongue*
- Latin, in high school, 286, 287
- Laws, *see Attendance and Employment*
- Length of school year, 137, 138
- Liberty in education, 224
- Libraries, school—
 in A., 173, 281, 282
 in E., 39, 173
 in F., 115, 128, 173
 in G., 75, 173, 241, 282
- Licencie, *see Examinations*
- Life, professional, of teacher, 98, 158
- Life, school, length of, *see School life*
- Lycée*, *see Schools, secondary*
- MAINTENANCE of school, gaol, and
 prison compared, 5
- Male and female, *see Sex*
- Manual method, *see Deaf*
- Manual training—
 in A., 149, 307
 in E., 42, 372, 380
 in F., 115
 in G., 78, 372
- Medical inspection of schools, 114,
 147, 384, 385
- Method of teaching—
 in A., 148, 153, 185, 280 *et seq.*,
 290

- Method of teaching (*contd.*)—
 in E., 183, 319 *et seq.*
 in F., 181, 220, 230
 in G., 178 *et seq.*, 252 *et seq.*
- Mixed schools, 67, 331, 347
- Modern language teaching, 253, 260, 290, 319
- Modern schools, 390
 in A., 294
 in E., 294, 303, 314, 316
 in F., 229
 in G., 242, 251, 260
- Mother-influence in education, 188
 (note), 339; *see also* School and home
- Mother-tongue, teaching of—
 in A., 185, 186, 291
 in E., 254, 320
 in F., 230
 in G., 254
- Mother-tongue, difficulties of, 195
et seq.
- Museums, school, 115, 240, 307
- NATIONAL characteristics, 10, 11, 248, 328, 329, 387
- Norms, 278
- Nutrition, as cause of defectiveness, 380
- ORAL method, *see* Deaf
- Oratorical contests, 291
- Organisation of primary school—
 in A., 147
 in E., 34
 in F., 116
 in G., 79, 80
- Organisation of secondary school—
 in A., 276, 291
 in E., 315, 318
 in F., 219, 226, 230
 in G., 246
- Over-pressure, 202, 230, 248, 249, 261, 291, 344, 356
- Over-training, 326
- PENSIONS, *see* Teachers
- Phonetics, 253, 383
- Playgrounds, 173
 in A., 144
 in E., 173
- Playgrounds (*contd.*)—
 in F., 113
 in G., 73
- Politics and school, 5, 124, 125, 133, 150, 198
- Popular interest in education, 198
 in A., 130 *et seq.*, 134, 154, 164, 166, 180, 266
 in E., 33, 180, 198, 199, 266
 in F., 103, 198, 199
 in G., 180, 192, 193, 199
- Prefects, 102, 315
- Preparatory schools, 246, 304, 315
- Primus, 246
- Private schools—
 in A., 193, 269, 271
 in E., 298, 304, 305
 in F., 103, 106, 107, 121, 214, 218, 219
 in G., 67, 99, 235
- Product of primary school training—
 in A., 161
 in E., 43
 in F., 115, 116
 in G., 78, 79, 85
- Product of secondary school training, 319
 in A., 274, 294, 295
 in E., 274
 in F., 233
 in G., 249, 250, 255, 259, 263
- Provincial boards, 236, 237
- Proviseur, 219
- Public schools of England, their work, 325-327
- Pupil teachers, 52, 55, 79, 156
- QUALIFICATIONS of teachers, *see* Teachers, professional equipment of
- RATES, 36, 37, 142-144
- Reading unions, 155
- Reformatories, 374
- Religion in the school, 178, 190-192
 in A., 193, 237, 269
 in E., 30, 58, 194, 201, 307
 in F., 106, 107, 121, 192, 193
 (note), 213, 227
 in G., 66, 67, 95, 100, 178, 192, 201, 235
- Rotation of crops, 326

- Routine, daily, of school (secondary)—
 in A., 291
 in E., 308
 in F., 221
 in G., 247, 248
- Rural school, 197
 in A., 135, 142, 144, 148, 160, 161,
 276, 282
 in E., 30, 331
 in F., 119
 in G., 81, 97
- SCHOLARS, primary, number of—
 in A., 162
 in E., 29, 30, 61
 in F., 106, 128
 in G., 99
 —, secondary, number of—
 in A., 273
 in E., 299-301, 306, 331 (Wales)
 in F., 218, 219, 230, 301
 in G., 243, 251, 301
- Scholarships, 105, 208, 217, 239,
 270, 310, 331
- School and Church, 14, 15, 58, 66,
 190 *et seq.*
 — and home, 13, 25, 193 (note),
 338, 339
 — and life, 15, 17, 25, 118, 201,
 260, 261, 278, 287, 294, 314
 — and State, 14, 232, 240, 266
- School, effects of—
 mental, 201
 physical, 202
- School life, length of—
 in A., 139, 149, 166, 274, 290,
 294, 389
 in E., 47, 166, 302, 389
 in F., 166, 389
 in G., 68, 166, 246, 389
- School session, length of, *see* Session
- Schoolhouses, *see* Houses
- Schooling, total amount of, in A., 139
- Schools of science, 211
- Schools, primary, number of, 169
 in A., 162, 169
 in E., 30, 61, 169
 in F., 120, 169
 in G., 68, 99, 169
 —, secondary, number of—
 in A., 270
- Schools, secondary, number of
 (*contd.*)—
 in E., 299, 300, 306, 331 (Wales)
 in F., 219
 in G., 241, 242
- Science teaching—
 in A., 280, 390
 in E., 307, 320
 in F., 229
 in G., 253, 390
- Secular education, *see* Religion—
 in A., 193
 in F., 106, 213
- Session, school, duration of, 173
 in A., 138, 173, 291
 in E., 173, 308
 in F., 118, 138, 182, 221
 in G., 138, 173, 182, 247
- Sex in education, 336, 344-346, 351,
 358, 388, 389
 “Sides,” 316, 318
- Size of class, 18, 19
 in A., 160, 273
 in E., 307, 315, 333 (Wales)
 in F., 127, 128, 220
 in G., 80, 240
- Size of school—
 in A., 273
 in E., 306, 332 (Wales)
 in F., 216
 in G., 242
- Solidarity of curriculum, 245, 390 *et seq.*
- Special teachers, *see* Supplementary
- Specialisation, 287, 289, 316, 318
- Stagiaires, *see* Teachers
- Standard of living, 189
 “Standards,” 28
- Statistics, value of, 202
- Subjection of women, 337
- Subjects of instruction, *see* Curriculum
- Summer schools, 155
- Superintendent, *see* Inspectors
- Supplementary teachers—
 in A., 149
 in E., 52, 61
 in F., 124
 in G., 95
- Supply of trained teachers—
 in A., 151, 153
 in E., 50, 53, 56
 in F., 122, 124
 in G., 90, 91, 93, 95

- TEACHERS, appointment and tenure of—
 in A., 156, 158
 in E., 33, 309, 310, 324, 325, 333 (Wales)
 in F., 124, 231
 in G., 66, 97, 237, 258
 —, detachment of, 15, 124, 154, 165, 174
 —, extraneous tasks of, 97, 98, 124, 126
 —, liberty of, 40, 66, 155, 177
 —, number of—
 in A., 150, 151, 273
 in E., 52, 53, 54, 61, 306, 333 (Wales)
 in F., 121 *et seq.*
 in G., 89 *et seq.*, 93, 95, 258
 —, payment of—
 in A., 133 (note), 156 *et seq.*, 160, 161, 188, 275
 in E., 59, 60, 324, 333 (Wales)
 in F., 125 *et seq.*, 232
 in G., 95, 96, 97, 258
 —, pensions of—
 in A., 157
 in E., 61, 324
 in F., 126, 232
 in G., 98, 258
 —, politics and, 124
 —, professional equipment of—
 in A., 150, 153, 292
 in E., 52 *et seq.*, 183 *et seq.*, 306, 322-324, 333 (Wales)
 in F., 121 *et seq.*, 127, 128, 231
 in G., 91 *et seq.*, 177, 180, 257, 323
 —, social status of, 97, 124, 158, 324
 —, supply of, *see* Supply
 —, training of—
 in A., 151 *et seq.*, 155, 184 *et seq.*, 292
 in E., 53, 56, 57, 58, 183, 184, 322
 in F., 121 *et seq.*, 181, 182, 231
 in G., 66, 90, 91, 178 *et seq.*, 256
et seq.
 Teachers' institutes, 155
- Temperance instruction, 117, 149
 Text-book, method of, 148, 280
Titulaires, *see* Teachers
 Training, necessity of national, 1, 14
 —, value of teachers', 323
 Tutors, 220, 307, 315
- UNDERSTAFFING, 81, 82, 83, 127, 128; *see also* Size of class
 Ushers, 220
- VALUE of school property, 141, 273
 Value, varying, of money, 189
 Voluntary schools, *see* Religion
Vorschule, *see* Preparatory schools
- "WHISKY" money, 311
 Woman and man, competition of, 364-366
 Women as administrators, 155, 352
 —, independence of, 201, 336, 337
 —, national ideals of, 349
 —, sterility of educated, 342, 350
 Women primary teachers, 187, 188
 —, number of—
 in A., 158, 162, 187
 in E., 55, 56, 187
 in F., 187
 in G., 93, 94, 95, 181, 187, 205
 —, payment of, 187
 in A., 156
 in E., 59, 60
 in F., 125
 in G., 96, 98
 —, training of—
 in A., 151 *et seq.*
 in E., 57
 in F., 122
 in G., 91, 94, 181
- Women teachers in higher schools—
 in A., 274, 275
 in E., 307, 363
 in F., 357
 in G., 355
- YEAR, duration of school, 135, 137, 138, 162

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